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ABSTRACT

Nineteen papers are included in this document: "Potential and Impact: Assessment and Validation in Leadership Development" (Boatman); "Using an Organizational Diagnostic Instrument to Analyze Perceptions of the Virginia Extension Homemakers Council" (Newhouse, Chandler, Tuckwiller); "Image: Who Needs It?" (Hendricks, Birnstihl, Jacobson); "Developing a Cadre of Leaders in Extension Homemakers" (Ferrell); "Leadership Training for Missouri Community Betterment" (Williams); "Initiating Leadership Development" (Scholl); "Building Stakeholder Ownership in Interdisciplinary Programs" (Miller); "Expanding Oregon State University Extension's Leadership Program" (Tillson); "Self-Interest and Volunteerism: Analysis of a Statewide Association" (Passewitz, Donnermeyer); "Who Is Interested in Learning More about Leadership Skills?" (Steele); "Developing Effective Advisory Councils: One State's Approach" (Shoup); "Effectiveness of Needs Assessment and Advisory Committee in Planning and Implementation of Volunteerism In-Service Education (Cadwalader, Daugherty); "The Wisconsin Cooperative Extension Service Leadership Impact Study" (McIntee, Rossing); "Assessing the Impact of a Leadership Program: Analysis of Pretest Data" (Rohs, Gatchall, Blackburn, Tankersley); "Community/Family Leadership Education Evaluation Project" (Feeney, Millar); "Leadership Development: The Critical Link in Community Development" (Mulkey); "Volunteer Leadership Development: Changing Paradigms" (Walker, Young); "Statistical Profiles: Powerful Multipurpose Tools for Narrowing Program Focus and Developing Support among Community Leaders" (Young); and "The Disciplines, Institutions, and Needs To Be Met" (Stowe). (CML)

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LDS Leadership Development Seminar

Developing Human Capital Through Extension Leadership Programs

August 6, 1989

Manhattan, Kansas

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PROCEEDINGS OF

THE LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT SEMINAR: DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL THROUGH EXTENSION LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

August 6, 1989

The Holidome
530 Richards Drive
Manhattan, Kansas

PROCEEDINGS OF THE

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT SEMINAR:

DEVELOPING HUMAN CAPITAL THROUGH EXTENSION LEADERSHIP PROGRAMS

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INTRODUCTION

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Developing leaders is a subject of great interest in our society. It is a need that is recognized in both the public and the private sectors and there are many programs and courses offered in educational institutions and corporate agencies that reflect this interest. This conference was held on the premise that leadership skills can be learned and that the persons who design the programs to develop the leadership skills of others need a vehicle for sharing expertise, ideas, and experiences. The specific purposes of this conference were: (a) To strengthen the leadership skills and competencies of the professionals who work to develop the leadership capabilities of others, and (b) to strengthen and broaden the knowledge base which supports research, teaching and extension programs in leadership.

These purposes have maintained the efforts of the planning committee for two years and it is anticipated they will be valid for some time to come. Further, they support the national Extension Initiatives as evidenced by the title of the program. However, at the same time, these purposes go beyond the national Extension Initiatives because these initiatives may change with new events and different leaders and this is to be expected. The purposes stated above are not tied to subject matter and departmental disciplines because leadership development is interdisciplinary by its nature and a variety of disciplines creates a rich mixture for sharing experiences and expectations.

Results of the 1989 Leadership Development Seminar are presented in these proceedings. Leadership is examined from several perspectives. This includes discussions of interdisciplinary programs, examination of research issues, volunteerism, community development, Extension Homemakers, and evaluation studies. These discussions represent 28 different authors from 15 states. These proceedings are provided to encourage the professional growth of persons involved in aspects of leadership development in higher education.

POTENTIAL AND IMPACT: ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The Cooperative Extension System national initiative "Building Human Capital" identifies as a critical issue developing leaders, and charges Extension programs to assist members of organizations and institutions to "improve their leadership skills to analyze issues, make decisions, and understand political processes for moving toward desired goals." The challenge to build human capital by developing leaders is one that Extension programs share with many other organizations and disciplines as "leadership" literally becomes a household word during the last two decades of this century.

The process of leadership development is dynamic and ongoing. Dennis Roberts (1981) provides a useful description of leadership development in his comprehensive leadership program model created with Peg Anthony. This model distinguishes between leadership training, education and development. Leadership training is here-and-now oriented, related to specific skills, and focused on the improvement of performance. Leadership education is future-oriented, related to topics and theories, and focused on the improvement of general competence for leadership. Leadership development is an ongoing, hierarchical and sequential process to develop maturity that enhances leadership potential (20-21). This presentation will focus primarily on the leadership development process, realizing that leadership educators deal in all three processes.

My own personal bias is that leadership training and education, and especially the dynamic process of leadership development, becomes more effective when enhanced by assessment and validation. These components create conditions to enhance leadership potential by assisting the identification of leadership development needs and validating progress in meeting them. Assessment and validation processes help us as leadership development educators

to investigate, judge and provide feedback to improve our educational efforts, and to help learners improve their experiences in leadership.

ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION: SOME BASIC DEFINITIONS

For the purposes of this presentation, we will consider assessment and validation as two distinct yet very much inter-related parts of a process which enables learners to identify their potential for leadership development and the impact of leadership development experiences on their own personal leadership. We will define assessment as the process by which the level of learners' information, skill and affect, specifically as it relates to their leadership abilities or potential, is identified. Ideally, assessment is theoretically grounded, multidimensional and comprehensive (Kozloff, 1987). Its emphasis can either be diagnostic or regulatory, but in either event assessment can and should be seen as an accountability mechanism for our work in leadership development.

Assessment has at least two major purposes in leadership development: first, it provides information for effective program design, and second, it is an essential tool to enhance individual learning. Assessment should not be considered synonymous with evaluation. The Inter-Association Leadership Project (1988) clarifies the distinction between these two processes:

1. Program evaluation emphasizes the analysis of factors impacting the design and administration of the leadership program's activities.

2. Outcomes assessment emphasizes an analysis of the degree to which participants are affected by their involvement in the leadership program. (5)

Assessment can be used as a tool for program evaluation, and assessment results are one of the several factors which comprise the data base for program development. However, it is limiting to think of assessment only from a program development perspective. The rich uses of assessment results as a learning device must also be considered. Conversely, to neglect assessment in the program evaluation process is to miss an important dimension of feedback to improve our leadership programs.

The second area of focus for this presentation is validation. This process as it relates to leadership development identifies what has happened to the learner as a result of participation in leadership development. Validation provides opportunities to integrate cognitive awareness with behavioral

experiences in a framework created by identification of individual needs which the leadership development experience has met. Validation provides support and recognition for individual learning, and also creates mechanisms by which the learner can more readily transfer learnings from one setting to other settings.

Assessment and validation, then, should be seen in a general sense not just as requirements for developing or reporting on our programs, but as active mechanisms for improving leadership development individually and programmatically.

WHY ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION ARE IMPORTANT TO LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Several widely-accepted principles of learning are particularly related to the educational benefits of assessment and validation. A brief review of these principles will help to frame our examination of these processes as they relate to leadership development:

1. People learn better when they are actively involved in the learning process.

2. People learn better when they know what it is they are learning.

3. People learn better when they perceive rewards from the learning experience.

4. People learn better when the material to be learned can be personally applied to themselves.

5. People learn better when there is feedback and confirmation of learning.

These basic learning principles provide a methodological case for incorporating assessment and validation into our leadership development programs. If our intent in leadership development is to assist a sequential process of personal growth, then the additional learning which stands to occur through the incorporation of assessment and validation procedures supports this process.

In addition to embracing the utility of these learning principles as they relate to leadership development assessment and validation, my own personal list of other ways that these processes assist leadership development includes these:

1. The results of the processes are helpful in planning general or specific leadership development programs and interventions.

2. Depending on the design, the processes can be helpful in monitoring progress of individual learners in our leadership development programs.

3. Over time, results can be useful in describing what happens to learners during leadership development involvement.

4. The processes can provide helpful feedback for leadership development educators which can be used in our own instruction, advising or consultation.

There are many reasons, then, to include assessment and validation as integral components of our leadership development programs. These methods are, as Spangehl (1987) says of assessment in general, "nothing less than the institutionalization of self-awareness and constant change" (39), both of which must be considered as qualities of any successful educational undertaking.

WHY ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION ARE DIFFICULT IN LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

Both assessment and validation are challenging and often frustrating components of leadership development. Hanson (1982) has identified a number of reasons why assessment generally is a difficult process. Five of his conclusions have particular relevance to leadership development assessment and validation.

1. There are multiple definitions of leadership and thus assessment from theoretical models is difficult.

2. The multidimensional nature of leadership development calls for multi-faceted assessment processes.

3. Possible uses of assessment data are often not specified before the assessment is developed and implemented, i.e. description, evaluation, planning, monitoring, and hence results are often difficult to use.

4. Competing priorities in the leadership development process may make assessment and validation a low priority.

5. Effective assessment and validation models are not readily available, and few guidelines exist for selecting appropriate methods and instruments.

Hanson also suggests several ways to improve assessment, and each recommendation provides additional reasons why assessment and validation are difficult. The best processes are simple, inexpensive, refined methods which require minimal skills in assessment methodology. They also include multiple dimensions and are designed to not only provide individual feedback but to collect longitudinal data as well.

These difficulties are even more overpowering when we place them more specifically within the context of leadership development. We are all aware that there is little agreement as to just what leadership and leadership effectiveness are. What exactly, then, should we be assessing and validating? Will we focus on leadership traits, physical and constitutional factors, skill and ability, personal or social characteristics? These traits can, and have, been tested to identify "leadership potential" (Jago, 1982). However, too many exceptions exist, too many situational applications of the traits enter in, and it is currently impossible to agree on "effectiveness" criteria.

A review of the current literature of leadership suggests that while it is a rich and multidimensional phenomenon, since it is not easily (if at all) specified or quantified, it is at best difficult to manage from an educational and developmental perspective. Ultimately, we must make choices as to how we will define leadership. Perhaps leadership is transformational, as Adams (1986) asserts, and not a trait or personality variable, but "a mind set or cognitive orientation" (5-6). We can select from numerous orientations: visionary (Bennis and Nanus, 1985), initiative and inquiry (Blake and Mouton, 1986), planning, motivation and communication (McDade, 1987). We can view leadership as primarily affective: Kouzes and Posner (1988) identify challenge, inspiration, enablement, modeling and encouraging as key leadership practices, Gardner (1986) suggests envisioning, affirming and renewing as critical abilities. Schein (1985) frames leadership from a cultural management perspective, requiring emotional strength, depth of vision, capacity for self-insight and objectivity. He also emphasizes the importance of tolerance for diverse points of view, adaptive and boundary-spanning ability, as does Vaill (1989) and Peters (1987). The ethical dimension of leadership is currently receiving a great deal of attention: several recent leadership statements and leadership programs at institutions of higher education include a strong ethics/values component (College of St. Catherine, 1988; Cosgrove, 1987; Gregory and Britt, 1987). Jago (1982) suggest that leadership is both a

process and a property. It is apparent that there is currently little agreement as to what dimensions comprise either of these perspectives.

We must conclude that leadership assessment and validation cannot now, and will probably never, be based on universally identified and accepted criteria. Part of this reality is the nature of our field. As Millhone (1989) has concluded, "when we ask, 'what do we KNOW about the nature of leadership?' the answer must be NOT MUCH" (14). Jago (1982) capsulizes our dilemma well:

> Although thousands of empirical investigations of leaders have been conducted in the last 75 years, no clear and unequivocal understanding exists as to what distinguishes leaders from nonleaders and, perhaps more importantly, what distinguishes effective leaders from ineffective leaders. . . . Although behavioral scientists have granted few topical areas greater research attention, the results of these efforts remain a bewildering melange for even the most serious student of organizations(315)

So--leadership and leadership effectiveness are currently impossible to define or quantify. Assessment and validation are under the best of circumstances extremely challenging processes. Leadership development assessment and validation has many reasons to be difficult. These reasons do not, however, suggest that we ought not to incorporate them into our programs. We must be aware however, that as we develop and implement assessment and validation we are working with difficult processes, but ones that have significant potential to improve our programs as well as individual learning for our participants.

COMPONENTS OF LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION

The process that I recommend to incorporate assessment and validation into leadership development includes four components: (1) specifying the purposes for assessment and validation; (2) selecting the unit of analysis; (3) determining the content which will guide assessment and validation; and (4) identifying the strategies which will be used to assess and validate.

Purposes for Assessment and Validation. There are two basic purposes, either or both of which could be used to guide inclusion of assessment and validation in leadership development. My own preference is to try to incorporate both purposes, but the personal preference of the leadership development educator, the nature of the leadership development program, and the

context within which leadership development occurs will all influence this decision. Both purposes have been alluded to earlier in this presentation: the first is related to program development, and the second to individual learning and development.

We already understand the utility of assessment and validation to program development. Assessing leadership development needs provides input and guidance for program planning, management and evaluation decisions. Roberts (1981) states it well:

> If the growth of student leaders can be documented, such information can be a powerful tool for program planners, program participants and decision-makers. Clearcut documentation provides visible symbols of progress which can be of considerable use in demonstrating tangible program outcomes (189).

While the program development purpose will always be related to individual learning and development, it may be helpful to isolate this purpose as one of management (Kozloff, 1987). In other words, we can assess to help us manage our program design and delivery. We can assess to help us identify and communicate the scope and impact of our programs.

The second purpose specifically relates to the learning and development which occurs for the individual learner as a result of participation in leadership development. Keeton (1981) notes that as students are debriefed about their earlier learning experiences during the assessment process, they achieve considerable learning, and assessment can be designed to create conditions under which a variety of new learning occurs. Lemming and McAlleenan (1979) explain that individual assessment can help a student identify current needs and clarify strategies for future change. Sharing assessment results helps self-understanding, and the ability to develop individual goals comes from the student's awareness of the assessment results.

Unit of Analysis for Assessment and Validation. The purpose of assessment and validation will determine the selection of the unit of analysis for its implementation. The unit of analysis for assessment and validation can be the individual learner or it can be a group or organization. If the purpose is individual learning then the unit of analysis will be the individual learner. If the purpose is program development, then it will be the group or organization. In either case, the focus of assessment and validation should be on learners and the quality of their leadership development experience.

Content of Assessment and Validation. The content which is assessed and validated will be determined by the nature and purpose of the individual leadership development program. What we know about leadership development and about assessment and validation processes suggests that "content" within this context can be considered in at least four ways: (1) knowledge, (2) skills and competencies, (3) affective attributes, and (4) developmental needs.

Another way to think about this content schema is by considering cognitive, behavioral and attitudinal components of leadership development. In their national survey of leadership programs, Gregory and Britt (1987) identified cognitive, behavioral and attitudinal components through their analysis of program goals. Cognitive goals include imparting factual knowledge about leadership. Behavioral goal focus on teaching students "to do" leadership by seeking changes in behavior. Attitudinal goals include seeking a change in feelings about leadership and creating a higher level of commitment to leadership (34). The most comprehensive leadership development programs include cognitive, behavioral, and attitudinal components, i.e. the University of San Diego (Cosgrove, 1987).

Consideration of developmental needs in this content perspective reinforces the ongoing and sequential process of leadership development. Developmental needs can be cognitive, behavioral and affective. Gregory and Britt's findings about leadership programs (1987) reinforce the importance of a comprehensive approach to leadership development. They concluded, not surprisingly, that the more comprehensive the programs were the better. They noted that while leadership programs span the theoretical- applied spectrum, "in programs where the participants learn 'about' leadership as well as 'how to do' leadership, significant change in the participants is more likely to result" (34).

These four content perspectives are also consistent with assessment paradigms. Ewell (1985) has identified four basic dimensions of assessment: cognitive development, skills development, attitudinal development, and behavior after experience in the target environment. Jacobi, Astin, and Ayala (1987) cite Bowen's five major categories of outcomes for assessment: cognitive learning, practical competence, emotional and moral development, direct satisfaction and avoidance of negative outcomes (21). Keeton (1981) stresses the importance of measuring what people actually know and can do as the basis for assessment. Hanson (1982) has created an assessment model which includes cognitive and non-cognitive components organized within the categories of behavioral indicators, perceptions, skills and competencies. The "fit" between these four content areas as they relate to leadership development and to assessment and validation seems to be a comfortable one.

As decisions are made about content for leadership development assessment and validation, it is important to avoid focusing only on the cognitive components. This unidimensional focus is a weakness in much of current assessment (Hanson, 1982; Ewell, 1985, 1987; Spangehl, 1987). Leadership development lends itself to assessment of a variety of content outcomes, as we will see when we examine assessment and validation strategies which are available for our use.

Strategies and Methods: Assessments. Leadership development educators have a variety of strategies and methods available for use in assessment. Current literature on assessment stresses the importance of multiple methods and the need to emphasize qualitative as well as quantitative measures. The choice of assessment strategies will be a function of the decisions we make regarding purpose, unit of analysis and content for the process. Strategies from which to select or develop include (1) self-reports, interviews and questionnaires, (2) observations, by peers, instructors or outside experts, (3) simulations and demonstrations, (4) nonreactive or unobtrusive measures.

Self reports are probably the most typically used assessment strategies. The most common self-report is the paper-and-pencil questionnaire. We can select from standardized tests or from locally designed instruments Kavanaugh, Olinde and Kavanaugh (1987) have identified 8 questionnaires which may have utility for assessment, including Karnes and Chauvin's Leadership Skills Inventory, the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator, the Student Development Task Inventory, Fiedler's Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale, Gough and Heilbrun's Adjective Checklist, Byrd's Creatrix Inventory, Hersey and Blanchard's LEAD instruments, and Blanchard and Colleagues' Leader Behavior Analysis. I would add to this list Kouzes and Posner's Personal Best Questionnaire and Leadership Practices Inventory (1987).

It is also possible to create checklists or rating scales for use in assessment. The leadership development educator can select from competency-based questions, open-ended assessments, Likert scales, yes-no checklists, or skill/satisfaction inventories. Purposes, unit of analysis and content will guide this choice.

Another self-report strategy which is available for assessment is the individual or group interview. The interview can be conducted by the leadership development educator, or by another party. For example, at the University of Minnesota, former leaders and mentors are used in the assessment interview process (Gregory and Britt, 1987). Interviews can also be designed to incorporate actual samples of the learner's work, such as a meeting agenda or a diary of past leadership activity.

Observations. One way to avoid the cognitive-only assessment trap is to consider observation as a strategy. Leadership potential as demonstrated behaviorally can be assessed by observations conducted by instructors, peers, or outside experts. There are three basic types of observation that can be used for assessment purposes: (1) observation of leadership behaviors in a naturalistic setting, such as in the learner's organization; (2) observation in a simulated situation or of a particular exercise or task, such as an in-basket problem set in which learners respond to a series of problems and receive feedback based on their behavior; (3) or participant observation, in which the learner observes him or herself participating in a leadership role.

Simulations. The observation strategy taken one step further is actual participation in a simulation designed to assess particular content or meet particular purposes. Created from the assessment center approach which originated in business and industry, this strategy focuses on the identification, observation and documentation of participant behaviors. The assessment center approach has great promise for leadership development, and its potential has only begun to be realized. An extremely time and labor-intensive strategy, the assessment-center simulation provides considerable learning for those doing the assessment as well as for those being assessed, and it provides multiple sources of information to improve behavior. At least one simulation is currently available in the Center for Creative Leadership's Looking Glass project. Other simulations have been developed for specific programs. Beardsley (1987) describes one such process as related specifically to college student leadership development.

Nonreactive/unobtrusive measures. In some unique instances, nonreactive measures may be useful for assessment. If the purpose of assessment is only that of program development, then the use of nonreactive measures may be useful in complementing other assessment strategies. Abler and Sedlacek (1988) remind us that since we collect a great deal of nonrecreative data all the time anyway, i.e. counting participants at an event, or numbers of materials distributed or requested, we might consider putting this data to additional uses. Non-reactive methods can supplement and cross-validate other data without adding much additional cost or effort. We must be aware, however, of ethical considerations regarding informed consent of participants, and we should realize that there are no guarantees that the data collected nonreactively represents the leadership development construct of interest to us.

Personal Planning. Personal planning is generally an important element in enhancing personal learning and growth through the leadership development experience. It is a means to extend the learning principles which we examined

earlier. After formal or informal assessment has occurred, the learner is encouraged to develop some personal plans for his or her leadership development experience. The plans could have several formats, including (1) an open-ended plan which might simply be a list of several goals which the learner hopes to accomplish through the leadership development experience; (2) an action plan which might include specific actions the learner will take to begin to achieve the goals; (3) the categorized plan which might ask the learner to identify various types of goals (one scheme includes functional goals, problem-solving goals, innovative goals, and personal development goals); (4) the narrative plan which might include several paragraphs explaining commitments which the learner has made to her/himself to personally develop as a leader.

Whatever planning method is used, it will be most helpful if it is implemented following assessment and feedback. This focuses the learner on his/her desired development, and it makes the planning more meaningful. The plans are an excellent way to involve learners directly in the destiny of their own learning and development.

Strategies and methods: Validation. Depending on the purposes, unit of analysis and content which we have selected, we can incorporate the same strategies and methods to validate the impact of participation in leadership development as we use to assess potential. Self reports can be used to validate personal impact of participation. For example, the University of Texas uses a survey which incorporates a 4-point rating scale by which the learner indicates the amount of progress that has been made toward attaining each leadership development goal, plus a rating of how important the learner feels as a result of participating in the leadership development experience it is to attain the goal (Gregory and Britt, 1987). Standardized questionnaires or individually-developed checklists or rating scales can be used for this purpose.

Interviews lend themselves well to validate impact of leadership development participation. Group or individual interviews can be used, and depending on the purposes and content which form the basis for their use, they might focus on any or all of these strategies: (1) description, interpretation and transfer of what happened to the learner; (2) follow-up discussion of what was identified through the assessment process; (3) review of the personal plans which were created as a result of assessment;(4) open- ended discussion. The exit interview brings closure to the leadership development experience, and it also has the potential to create conditions to continue the learning process beyond the leadership development experience.

Observation and participation in simulations can be designed as a capstone experience for the leadership development program. These strategies currently are used less often for validation purposes, but I predict that they soon will be more fully incorporated into leadership development validation as the outcomes assessment movement gains strength and more models are developed for this purpose. Leaders, of course, tend to return to actual organizations and groups where they practice their leadership, so naturalistic laboratories exist, and they provide models from which to develop validation simulations. I would personally highlight leadership development capstone experiences as very important for future development, and I predict that visionary leadership development educators will soon be moving from discussion to implementation in this area.

Formal validation methods. In addition to the use of assessment strategies for validation purposes, several other methods exist to assist the learner in validating the impact of leadership development participation. These include leadership transcripts, written evaluations, validation letters, certification, and portfolios. The purpose and content of assessment and validation will determine whether or not these strategies have utility in a given situation.

LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT ASSESSMENT AND VALIDATION: PARTING THOUGHTS

"Building Human Capital" (1987) challenges Extension educators in its depiction of what this process includes:

> . . .increasing the ability of people to reach their full potential through involvement in families, organizations, communities, and the workplace. Investments in human capital provide people with the skills, ability, and understanding to function effectively in a complex, changing society.

The National Inter-Association Leadership Project (1988) suggests several core beliefs about the nature of leadership that relate to this challenge.

1. Leadership is demonstrated by those designated as leaders as well as by others who participate actively in the organization.

2. Leadership includes the ability to make thoughtful, critical and informed decisions.

3. Leadership includes the ability to maintain, protect and extend individual freedoms that form the basis of societal participation.

4. Leadership includes the ability to help members develop commitment to the organization and to its broader role in society.

5. Leadership includes having both a realistic contemporary perspective and a hopeful vision for individuals and society in the future.

6. Leadership includes the ability to identify strengths and weaknesses of self and others and to use this information for the benefit of the organization and of society. (1-2)

Assessment and validation will help us to design leadership development programs that assist learners to identify strengths and weaknesses, to process and apply experiences, and to strive to reach their full potential as they contribute to organization, communities and society.

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USING AN ORGANIZATIONAL DIAGNOSTIC INSTRUMENT TO ANALYZE PERCEPTIONS OF THE VIRGINIA EXTENSION HOMEMAKERS COUNCIL

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PURPOSE

People in organizations envision a prototype of their organization replete with appropriate purposes, costs, benefits, images, structures, and functions. When what one idealizes differs from reality, the incongruity is problematic to members of the organization. According to Schaller (1972) and Gibson, Ivancevich, and Donnelly (1982) such problems originate from change. Klein and Ritti (1980) explain that change is the product of a problem discovered when one or more individuals identify that "what is" is somehow different from what "ought to be." In order for behavioral responses to be modified, situations that represent a discrepancy between the real and the ideal must be recognized and addressed.

The purpose of the organizational diagnostic instrument described in this paper is to help members of an organization to become cognizant of differing perceptions of the organization. Administration of this instrument in a group setting is a nonthreatening exercise in introspection that leads participants to recognize that the organization is viewed from various perspectives. This is the initial phase in the process of problem identification that is necessary for an organization to become more self-directed.

The organization under consideration in this paper is the Virginia Extension Homemakers Council (VEHC). VEHC has been in a transitional mode in recent years as a result of dramatic organizational change. Because one goal of this Extension-affiliated group is to become more self-directed, the participation of VEHC leaders and their Extension advisors in an organizational diagnostic procedure seems appropriate.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Two concepts essential to this discussion are "change" and "organization." Not only do the concerns or problems to be identified result from change, but change is the desirable outcome of the diagnostic process. Therefore, change is a dynamic process that is cyclical in nature. For the purpose of this paper, however, change is discussed within the context of organizational change. With regard to the nature of organizations, the authors explore characteristics and functions of organizations that permeate the literature. This discussion of the nature of organizations provides an important foundation for the design of the organizational diagnostic instrument.

A final body of literature cited here gives an historical perspective of the evolution of the Extension Homemakers Club organization and identifies recent changes that have occurred in VEHC. The purpose of this discussion is to sensitize the reader to the transitional state of the organization.

The Concept of Organizational Change

Rogers (1971) states that there are two basic approaches to organizational change. The first is an authoritarian approach in which decisions about changes are made by a centralized power position. The second is the participative approach, in which decisions about change are made by those who will be affected. While the initial rate of adoption of the decisions made is faster with the authoritarian approach, the changes are not always as permanent as those resulting from a participatory approach.

Although there are concerns about the value of participation, the benefits generally exceed the costs. Kanter (1983) explains that in order for an organization to increase the extent to which it is future directed, all individuals need to be fully involved and aware of the proposed course to be taken. Kanter says that "...organizations which either fail to understand the need for change or are inept in their ability to deal with change will fade and fall behind, if they survive at all" (p. 38). She adds that those organizations which are successful will be adept at reorienting their own and others' activities in untried directions to bring about higher levels of achievement.

Lawrence (1969) says that change done to someone can be disturbing, but change done by involving those who will be affected can be exhilarating. Huse (1975) says that the change process should be collaborative and involve all of those who are likely to be affected. Robinson and Clifford (1974) and Odiorne (1981) also concur. They agree that individuals should be involved, as they tend to support those changes which they have helped to create, giving them a sense of ownership in the change. She adds that change is more likely to be considered positive by those involved if they feel they have actively contributed to fostering the change process. Kanter also states that participation in the change process helps to prepare people for change by enlarging their outlook and knowledge base. Benne and Birnbaum (1969) state that the effectiveness of planned change is directly related to the degree to which individuals at all levels participate in the process. Huse (1975) agrees that information related to the need for change must be shared by all relevant people. Making sure that the information reaches these people requires the specific and deliberate opening of communication channels.

Klein and Ritti's (1980) normative-reeducative approach is based on the participatory philosophy that people involved in the change process tend to develop a commitment to the change itself. The approach consists of having those who will be affected involved in generating data, identifying problems, and determining the resulting changes. Further, Lin and Zaltman (1973) describe a six stage participative process which begins with involving significant individuals in diagnosing problems.

The Nature of Organizations

One of the dominant characteristics of our modern society is the prevalence of organizations. In fact, organizations pervade every element of our lives. We need only look around us to realize this fact. Most of us were born in a hospital. Most of us were educated in a school system. Practically all of us regularly participate in recreational, social, religious, or civic

activities. Many of us hold jobs outside the home. In each case cited, organizations are involved. Accordingly, knowledge regarding organizations such as what they are, why we have them, and the purposes they serve is basic if we hope to influence and direct them effectively.

In a review of literature on organizations, Bradford (1974), Drucker (1974), and Hersey and Blanchard (1977), reveal that five characteristics must be present for an organization to exist. The first of these is the concept of values. Simply stated, values are the underlying philosophy that defines the reason(s) for an organization's existence. Without values, no organization can hope for a successful life.

The second characteristic that must be present is goals. Organizational goals should be thought of as articulated values. They are the operating principles an organization has set for itself.

The third characteristic common to all organizations is structure. No goal can be met unless it is made operational. Thus, all organizations need structure. If viewed as a support system, structure can be thought of as the institutional arrangements that enable an organization to work. Included are reporting relationships (boss/subordinate or leader/member); a communication system; procedures for decision-making, rules, or norms for organization members; an accounting/evaluative capability for determining goal attainment; and a system for rewarding goal attainment.

The next characteristic present in all organizations is climate. This element is the by-product of matching people with organizational goals. The morale of organization members, the presence of tension, stress, clarity, and cooperation--just to name a few--are "climate" reactions always present in organizations.

Few, if any, organizations exist in a vacuum. Practically all must interact with other groups or individuals to accomplish their goals. As such, the final characteristic shared by all organizations, is the environment in which the organization exists. Unless an organization has a successful relationship with its environment, goal attainment may be jeopardized and trauma could result.

Just as organizations share common characteristics, they also share common functions. Again, the literature on organizations is quite diverse. Nonetheless, four recurring functions do appear. One of the most significant is the notion of coordination. As Schein (1980) notes, the very idea of organization stems from the fact that the individual alone is unable to fulfill

all of his needs or wishes. When people coordinate their efforts they find they can do more. Accordingly, a major function of organizations is the idea of coordination of effort in the service of mutual help.

The second organizational function builds upon the first. In order for coordination to be helpful, there must be agreement on the purpose of the organization. Thus, most organizations function to achieve some common goal or purpose.

Etzioni (1964) discusses the third function of organizations. Describing organizations as social units deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals, Etzioni maintains that all organizations are characterized by divisions of labor. The major premise of the division of labor is that organizational goals can best be achieved if different people do different things in a coordinated fashion. We can look to the military for an example. The Army has concluded that some of its members should be fighters while others serve as supporters, bringing ammunition, food, and medicine to the fighters. When the job of fighting and supporting are each big enough, fighters may be divided into those who shoot rifles and those who man heavy guns. Suppliers may be divided into a food-service unit, a clothing unit, and an ammunition unit. The total mission is thus divided into smaller units replete with their own subgoals. The resulting philosophy is that the overall goal (military preparedness in the example) can best be achieved by distributing subgoals and the labor needed to achieve them.

The final function running through the literature of organizations is that of authority. Etzioni (1964) describes this as the presence of one or more power centers which control the efforts of the organization. Closely allied to division of labor and coordination, authority of some kind is essential if the organization's goals are to be met. In most organizations, authority is embodied in positions, titles, or ranks. Each position tends to have defined for it an area of responsibility or division of the labor and, in most cases, the authority to insure that its part of the job will be done. Coordination of effort is attained when a plan of action is made and everyone knows who is responsible for what.

Development of the Extension Homemakers Club Organization

When the Smith-Lever Act was enacted in 1914, Extension home economics work, or home demonstration work as it was called then, was already well-established (Heywood, 1966). This home demonstration work was a logical corollary to the farm demonstration work that evolved during the same period.

Thus, the demonstration format was the primary teaching strategy used to accomplish the Extension purposes outlined in the Smith-Lever Act.

Early home economics agents discovered that they could be more effective and efficient if they worked with rural women, their target audience, in groups rather than by individual home visitations. In response to this need to expedite the transfer of information, the Home Demonstration Club, later renamed Extension Homemakers Club, was born in 1923. During the early days of the organization, rural homemakers were encouraged to organize community groups where the agent would demonstrate improved practices. Those in attendance could then demonstrate to others, thereby further disseminating the educational efforts of Extension. Thus, while they continued to use the result method to teach, it was now being used within the context of a group teaching method as opposed to an individual teaching method.

In the 1930's, agents began to place less emphasis on working with groups on an individual basis and more emphasis on training volunteers from the groups to be the teachers. Not only was training provided concerning the information to teach, methods were discussed regarding how to teach it. This delivery method proved to be even more effective. The trained volunteers, by returning to their clubs to teach members, were able to multiply even further the efforts of the agents. Result demonstrations still remained the primary teaching method, but most of these were now done by volunteers instructed by agents. Consequently, in order to teach as many people as possible, agents had to rely on teaching volunteers from the home demonstration clubs who could then return to their groups to teach others.

This simplistic overview describes the evolution of the Extension Homemakers Club organization as a history of relative constancy and a focused sense of mission. Juxtaposed to early years, recent years have brought some abrupt changes to Extension Homemakers in Virginia.

The most dramatic change has been a declining membership (Neilan, 1985). Membership in VEHC peaked at approximately 44,000 during the 1960's then slowly decline to the current membership of 9,539.

Extension agents have traditionally served in an advisory capacity, providing both organizational and educational assistance. While the advisory role remains an important Virginia Cooperative Extension Service (VCES) focus in Extension home economics, the support given has changed dramatically in recent years in an effort to help VEHC become more autonomous and to comply with state and federal mandates.

In the early 1980's VCES was scrutinized by the Virginia Joint Legislative Audit and Review Committee and required to revamp programming efforts in such a way that home economics programs were de-emphasized. Simultaneously, VEHC was responding to the federal requirement to integrate all clubs in racially diverse communities as set forth in Extension's 1982 Civil Rights Compliance Plan.

Given these two significant events, VEHC and VCES decided to look toward the organization's future together. Thus, in 1983 an ad hoc future's committee with representatives from both Extension and Extension Homemakers was formed. A major contribution of this committee was the Virginia Extension Homemakers Study (Neilan, 1985). This baseline investigation was designed as a systematic examination of the purpose, function, impact, expectations, and membership characteristics of the Homemakers Council from the perspectives of VEHC members, VCES employees and the general public.

Another important product evolving from the future's committee was the Memorandum of Understanding. This document was finalized in July 1987 to enhance and clarify the partnership between VCES and VEHC. The memorandum specified what each partner agreed to do and was mutually agreed upon. This was, in essence a contract between the two organizations that formalized their working relations.

The purpose of the preceding discussion of recent changes in VEHC is to help the reader to understand the organizational climate just prior to the administration of the organizational diagnostic exercise in March 1988. The fact that Extension Homemakers in Virginia were in the midst of a complicated reorganization that was not entirely voluntary created some negative responses and volatile feelings that needed to be addressed. The VEHC advisor considered this an optimal time to introduce the organizational diagnostic assessment to help the organization in their quest to confront change in a positive way.

METHODOLOGY

In 1988, the Virginia Extension Homemakers Council (VEHC), as part of a comprehensive orientation for newly elected council leaders and in response to changes that were occurring in the organizational environment, decided the time was right for an introspective look at itself.

Resource specialists from the Community Development branch of the Virginia Cooperative Extension Service were asked to assist VEHC in designing and conducting the self-assessment. In response, the community development

specialists prepared a ten question organizational diagnostic for VEHC. In many respects, the VEHC diagnostic was modeled after a diagnostic tool Community Development had successfully utilized with local governing bodies and related community groups and organizations.

The organizational diagnostic, as designed, provided VEHC with the opportunity to systematically analyze its reason for being, its goals and objectives. This was accomplished by having each VEHC member silently complete the ten question diagnostic and then sharing their thoughts with other VEHC members in small groups. The by-product of the small group discussion was consensus statements for each of the ten questions.

Ancillary to VEHC members efforts, the Extension Home Economics Agents attending the training session were asked to complete the organizational diagnostic. Their charge was to respond to each item in the diagnostic as they personally perceived VEHC.

RESULTS

The questions and responses that follow represent the assessment of 54 VEHC members and their Extension advisors who worked in small groups during the 90-minute session. There were five groups of VEHC members and one of Extension professionals.

1. Why do we exist? The first question on the diagnostic asked the participants to identify the fundamental rationale underscoring VEHC. Although some VEHC members had a hard time answering the question, several themes did surface. Chief among them were education and extending service and learning to the community.

   Somewhat surprisingly, the Extension Home Economists participating in this exercise concluded that the organization existed to network with other organizations. A second theme offered by the home economists characterized VEHC as a pool of volunteers.

2. What business are we in? Both response groups concurred that the business of VEHC was education. More specifically, both groups described the "business" of VEHC as people development.

3. What is our product? VEHC leaders identified improved knowledge and skill in the areas of family and community life as their primary product. The Extension Home Economists had a similar response. Specifically, they

identified research-based information capable of improving a family's quality of life as VEHC's primary product.

4. Who are our clients? Both VEHC and the Extension Home Economists concurred in their response that families and citizens of the Commonwealth are the organization's clients.

5. What kind of image do we project? This question generated a wide range of response. In fact, each response group concluded that VEHC projected a negative, as well as positive, image.

   On the positive side, VEHC members cited their rich heritage and their ability to serve the client. On the negative side, some members felt the organization lacked an image, while others maintained that the image was one of older women involved in arts and crafts activities and cooking classes.

   It is interesting that the Extension Home Economists generally noted the same positive and negative images. The only difference involved the agents' observation regarding VEHC member positive contributions as volunteers.

6. Are the goals of VEHC and the VEHC Board clear and agreed upon? VEHC respondents were nearly unanimous in saying no. The Extension Home Economists responded in the same fashion, but qualified their answer by commenting that the VEHC was in a transitional stage.

7. What are our goals for the future? In spite of characterizing VEHC goals as unclear, the organization's members were very positive in identifying the recruitment of new members and the sponsorship of improved educational programs as goals for the future.

   The Extension Home Economists maintained that a strengthened VEHC organization, with a greater stake in public policy education, would be a worthy goal for the future.

8. How have we changed over the years? The major changes noted by both response groups involved the generalized shift from "home demonstration" to a focused educational effort designed to meet the needs of many people. Another consensus response noted by both groups involved greater use of community and issue-based programming.

9. What are our strengths and weaknesses? A remarkable degree of similarity highlighted the responses received for this question. With respect to strengths, VEHC members noted their expertise and experience as educators. VEHC members also listed leadership skills and their tradition of involvement as organizational strengths. Comments made by the Extension employees mirrored those of the VEHC members.

Relative to weaknesses, VEHC members cited the need for added visibility, improved communication, and a fear of change as their primary shortcomings. In a similar vein, the Extension Home Economists' perception of VEHC weaknesses centered on the need for enhanced communication and the need for greater enthusiasm.

10. What would be lost if we cease to exist? VEHC members and the Extension Home Economists observed that fellowship, sixty-five years of tradition and the opportunity to make an educational difference would be lost if the VEHC ceased to exist.

CONCLUSIONS

The significance of administering the organizational diagnostic instrument to an audience of VEHC members and Extension educators was threefold: (1) to heighten awareness of the organization's well-being; (2) to facilitate dialogue between the two groups with regard to organizational concerns; and (3) to suggest areas of dysfunction within the organization that need to be addressed. Although this instrument has been used successfully with a number of academic departments, agencies, and governmental units in strategic planning endeavors, the exercise was not intended to result in a plan of action for VEHC. Rather, the Community Resource Development Specialist designed the learning session primarily as a mechanism to clarify organizational perceptions.

The transferability of the instrument as suggested by the various groups who have used it increases its usefulness. By modifying the questions to reflect the needs of the organization being assessed, the instrument becomes a useful diagnostic tool for various organizations. With regard to Extension Homemakers, it is appropriately used at every organizational level (i.e. club, county or city, area, region or state). The instrument can also be used to assess interorganizational perceptions (i.e. how Extension Home Economist view Extension Homemakers). Thus, the organizational diagnostic instrument discussed in this paper has much flexibility giving it the potential for a variety of uses other than the manner in which it was conceptualized here.

With regard to the specific results of the diagnostic exercise, the following explanations are offered:

To Heighten Awareness of the Organization's Well-being. Because organizations exist in a changing environment, they are dynamic and require periodic monitoring, analogous to a blood pressure check in human beings, to determine "well-being." The Extension Specialist providing leadership for the diagnostic activity suggests readministering the instrument annually.

To Facilitate Dialogue Between the Two Groups with Regard to Organizational Concerns. One positive outcome of this exercise was the similarity between the perceptions of VEHC members and Extension employees. This basic congruity gave credence to a common organizational philosophy. It served as a point of departure for communication and provided a frame of reference for dialogue about the organization. Because the responses to the exercise were circulated to both organizations via newsletters, awareness and dialogue were both stimulated.

To Suggest Areas of Dysfunction Within the Organization That Need to be Addressed. The diagnostic exercise elicited both positive and negative information. Two specific areas of deficit evolved as an unfocused image and unclear organizational goals. Currently, the organization, with the cooperation of Extension, is addressing these areas. The diagnostic exercise helped to legitimize conversations about delicate topics that had previously been taboo.

In summary, the organizational diagnostic exercise was useful to both Extension Homemakers and Extension educators as a flexible tool to promote awareness, enhance the exchange of information, and to give license to articulating concerns about areas of organizational dysfunction. It has proven to be a valuable tool in the process of participative change undertaken that begins with problem identification.

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IMAGE: WHO NEEDS IT?

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INTRODUCTION

Belief in oneself and one's worth as an individual is basic to carrying out leadership responsibilities. Confidence in oneself will be even more important in the 1990s as we continue in a time of accelerated change with increased demands for competent people.

Trends that are shaping our society are challenging people, especially women, to move into different and often unfamiliar roles in which their sense of self is tested. Whether in the work force or as volunteers, many women are assuming positions in organizational leadership, management, and advocacy in both business and government. To successfully perform in these expanded personal, professional and social situations, people need confidence in themselves. They need the ability and self-assurance to make good impressions on others. The impression, or the image, they present will help determine their success.

The idea for "Image: Who Needs It?" was conceived early in 1988. The Nebraska Council of Home Extension Clubs had just celebrated its 50th Anniversary and wanted a new look for the organization to move forward with continued relevance for women experiencing changes in their lifestyle. Many were entering the workforce and needed additional skills and more confidence in themselves to be successful when making these changes. Some were choosing not to renew their membership with the idea that NCHEC didn't offer them

opportunity for continued growth in these new areas. Members were expressing concern that people thought of them in terms of the "stitch and stir" image, not as people interested in adult education to improve themselves in many ways.

A person "never gets a second chance to make a first impression." This became the slogan for the program. The first few seconds of an encounter often determine the success of the venture. With so many people making changes, assuming new roles, and meeting others who can have great influence over future success, they need the necessary skills to believe in themselves and move with confidence into positions with potential for power and leadership.

PURPOSE

Leadership programs often prepare people for new roles with technical and informational skills without following through with the social skills and personal valuing necessary for them to be truly effective. We assume that everyone has self-confidence and proficiency in practical leadership.

The purpose of this study was to identify any gap that might exist between the current self-image and confidence of women, especially Extension Club members, and their competence in behaviors desirable for effective participation in organizational leadership positions or in activities such as Family Community Leadership. An educational program would then be designed to close that gap if it indeed existed.

People differ in their training, experience and ability. They have individual preferences, styles, motivations and aspirations for leadership roles. Still, some level of competency is expected of those who assume positions of authority or influence. Organizations and projects suffer when those responsible are unable to carry out their jobs for whatever reason.

The program was designed to take into account the variety of persons involved and their varying possibilities. Participants made their own evaluation of their present status, of the desired change or improvement, and how it was to be accomplished.

DEFINITIONS

(1) Image - A mental picture formed about someone or something; it is the impression one person makes on others whether it is at home, at work or in a community setting.

(2) Self - Entire person as actually exists; the whole person.

(3) Self-image - The self one THINKS oneself to be; a complex concept of one's personality, character, status, and bodily appearance; may differ from fact.

(4) Self-esteem - How people FEEL about themselves and the extent to which they like themselves.

(5) Self-concept - Fullest description people are able to give of themselves at any particular time; includes both self esteem and self-image.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Research Theories

People carry around within themselves a Model of Man - a personalized concept of human nature, a common sense notion about the way people are. Concepts as defined by theorists fall on a continuum from behavioristic to humanistic. The poles of the continuum reflect opposite philosophies of human nature (i.e. passive vs. active). Hitt (1968) cites evidence to support both philosophies stating that "it is obvious that psychologists have been dealing with two different aspects of man, his actions and his self-awareness. It is reasonable that man could be described in terms of either his behavior or his consciousness or both."

Rogers (1961) extends the self-concept theory to the idea of a perceived self and an actual self. The perceived self is the self one thinks him/herself to be at any point in time. The actual self is the self as it really exists. Ideally, the perceived and actual self are close to being the same.

Rogers concluded that there are three selves: the self you perceive yourself to be, the self that others see, and the self you wish to be.

According to Lewin's field theory, learning occurs as a result of a change in the structure of the cognitive field and of the motivation of the individual

(Knowles, 1984). Because of the need for many people to learn new life skills, the climate of learning should be open to new ideas and ways to learn. Lewin felt that success was a more potent motivating force than reward and gave attention to level of aspiration. Learning can be designed to empower people and to improve their chances of success if we know the goals they want to achieve.

The person who seeks greater personal adequacy and progressive development is addressed by Combs and Snygg (1959) in their phenomenological psychology, a concept of a person as an integrated whole. They defined the phenomenal field as the universe, including him/herself, as perceived by the individual at the instant of action and postulate that all of the person's behavior is determined by and must be appropriate to the field at that instant. If the field changes, then the person must change behavior to conform to the field.

Left or right brain dominance determines how people approach problems. Englebardt (1988) provided examples of the artistic, spatial, emotional, holistic function exhibited by persons using the right brain which include intuition and perception of abstract ideas. Left brain dominance controls functions of the mind that are worldly, active, logical, and analytical. The people most successful in completing their responsibilities are those who use both the left and right brain.

Loevinger's (1966) Model of Ego Development is a process of integrating experiences which enables an individual to make sense of him/herself, others and the environment in terms of a frame of reference. It is the process that forms moral judgement, character, and conscience. It is a movement away from dependency or conformity towards interactiveness, a more concerned "self state."

Self-esteem

Self-esteem and empowerment are fundamental building blocks needed to develop leadership competencies (Walker, 1988). Other items identified by Walker as contributing to leadership development are an understanding of self, speaking and listening skills, use of power, and development of self-confidence. In fact, developing positive self-image can be regarded as the initial step of leadership development.

The works of several writers have supported the importance of self-esteem and ego development of individuals; i.e. Maslow, Rogers, Knowles, and Burns. Rogers (Knowles, 1984) cautions educators that they can only be facilitators of this developmental process. Participants must see value in participating and

cannot learn if they feel threatened. Consequently, teachings must be directed toward helping people learn without making them uncomfortable in the process.

The words self-esteem and image are often mistakenly used interchangeably. Self-esteem is how persons feel about themselves and the extent to which they like themselves, while image is the impression a person has of him/herself and how he/she appears to others. Self-esteem should be viewed more as an end result, and self-image more as a process or catalyst affecting self-esteem. Self-esteem is one of the most important possessions a person can possess. Someone with a positive sense of self is typically more effective in occupational performance. Kunjufu (1984) indicates that members of a group who lack self-esteem may not be comfortable asking and answering questions. This would limit their participation and effectiveness.

Branden (1969) says that the desire for self-esteem is a basic need. Self-esteem is composed of a sense of personal efficiency and a sense of personal worth. It is the sum of self-confidence and self-respect. In fact, self-concept is important to a person's choice of values and goals, and the degree of self-esteem (or lack of it) has a profound impact on desires, ambitions, productivity, and every other aspect of a person's life.

Self-concept

A self must possess a satisfactory degree of adequacy before it can venture commitment and encounter. What constitutes an adequate self has intrigued psychologists for several years. Combs and Snygg (1959) and Combs (1962) approached this question from the perceptual point of view and listed four general qualities on adequate self:

(1) People who see themselves in essentially positive ways.
(2) People who perceive themselves and their world adequately and realistically.
(3) People who have deep feelings of identification with other people.
(4) People who are well informed.

Combs, Blume, Newmann, and Wass (1974) wrote that changes in self-concept are most effectively brought about through slow changes in perceptions about outside events, and their relation to the self. To produce a change in a person's self requires a new experience that helps the person perceive themselves in a different way. At least three ways of bringing about this change include:

(1) Through experience.
(2) Through consequence of perceiving an event in a new way.
(3) Through self-perception change following changed perception of others.

Rogers (1969) felt that when the self-concept of learners changed and they discovered that they could complete the task, then the "slow learners" became "fast learners"--success built upon success.

Image

Image (White, 1987) is a mental picture formed about someone or something; it is the impression one person makes on others whether it is at home, at work, or in a community setting. Some researchers indicate that you have less than 30 seconds (some researchers are saying as little as 5-7 seconds) to make a favorable first impression. Image is important because an appropriate image helps one reach personal and professional goals. An inappropriate image hinders if it is not suitable for the occasion. Assumptions about individuals and groups are made in accordance with the manner in which they represent themselves. People who feel good about themselves and what they are doing have self-directed energy to accomplish tasks and they are comfortable when working with others.

The image the facilitator portrays to the learner is also very important in the learning process. Rogers (1961) found the facilitator's role played an important part in the learning - change process. When four conditions existed, the learner was more apt to learn:

(1) The facilitator was real or genuine, not a person with a facade.
(2) There is caring, trust, and respect for the learner.
(3) The facilitator empathizes with the learner.
(4) The learner must be able to sense or perceive something of the facilitator's empathy, caring, appreciation, and genuineness.

Leadership

Adams and Yoder (1985) pointed out that much of what is known about leadership has been developed by men. Cary and Timmons (1988) add that men are frequently identified as doers and women as passive responders. Cary and Timmons indicated that it is not surprising that leadership traits of assertiveness and self-confidence are more apt to be assigned to men than women. These researchers noted evidence from studies of sex-role and leadership that demonstrate how men and women, with similar education and training, are able to assume leadership responsibilities equally well.

There are certain personal characteristics associated with people who persistently emerge as leaders in a variety of situations: intelligence, a high level of energy, positive attitude, self-confidence, assertiveness, ability to express feelings, etc. (Cary and Timmons). Contrary to folklore, leaders are made, not born. Leadership is learned behavior.

METHODS

A pilot study was done in the spring of 1988 to assess the present situation. Questionnaires containing seventy items were distributed to a sample of 15 Home Extension Club members. Questionnaires were distributed in one county by the snowball technique. Time restrictions limited a larger or more representative sample.

Items on the questionnaire included true and false responses to statements such as "I often feel inadequate to handle new situations" and "I am usually poised and comfortable around strangers." Multiple choice answers were provided for "When you are hung up getting started on a project or working out a problem, is it because...," "In describing myself, I would say that generally I am..." and "Do you tend to judge a person by..." with two or three responses being provided. Open ended questions such as "The thing I like about myself is...," "Most men think that women...," "A woman feels good when...," and "A woman should always..." were also included.

A list of items were designed to suggest the level of stress by the number of indicators experienced within the past two months. The list included such indicators as tension headaches, drug consumption, worrisome thoughts, depression, indigestion, and angry feelings.

The results of the original survey became the basis for development of a practical, skill oriented presentation for women attending the state meeting in June and at eight fall district meetings of the Nebraska Council of Home Extension Clubs. It became a leader training lesson for the club program across the state. A part of it was included in the Public Relations workshop at the 1988 National Extension Homemakers Council meeting in 1988. The program was recently revised to be appropriate also for men and was introduced as part of the Family Community Leadership training in Nebraska.

Throughout this process, the program has evolved using feedback from participants concerning what was helpful and what else might be included.

Several offshoots developed. A workshop for University of Nebraska Extension faculty was presented at their annual professional meeting in 1988. The theme of the presentation was "Enhancing the Public Image of Extension Professionals."

Several Extension agents have adapted the program to be used as a presentation with local groups. As an example, two agents are using it with staff of federal agencies, serving a multi-county area, who wanted to enhance their public image.

Program Materials

The program packet was developed using the same train-the-trainer model for materials that are used in Nebraska for club leader training lessons. The program is presented by Extension personnel or trained volunteers to representative members who, in turn, take the information back to their clubs or other groups. It is based upon adult learning through involvement in the process of program development designed to meet members' needs and interests. The materials are packaged so agents or volunteers can pick them up and lead the program without a great deal of training or additional information.

The skits and demonstrations were designed to represent, as nearly as possible, real life situations to facilitate ease of transfer of the information. They are common experiences and make the program versatile and adaptable.

The "Image: Who Needs It?" packet contains the following materials:

Leader's Guide - materials designed with activities to help teach adults about image.

Participant's Workbook - assists participants throughout the program in identifying desirable characteristics and in designing a plan of action to apply in making changes they choose.

Sample Agenda - using included activities, the leader is able to develop a one-hour workshop. The information may be adapted to several shorter presentations or expanded to include more activities.

Background Information - a packet of information for the leader to use in preparing for the presentation.

Skits - demonstration of two typical situations where the ability to present oneself appropriately is crucial to the outcome.

Resource List - a list of references used as background information in preparing the program packet. For those interested in addressing the issues in 'more depth, other resources are readily available.

Evaluation Form - for use to get feedback on the presentation.

FINDINGS

Fourteen of the 15 questionnaires distributed in the pilot survey of 1988 were returned. One woman was under 26 years, three were between the ages of 26 and 35, nine were 36 to 45 and one was over 65. This is not representative of club membership which has more older members but we should consider that the older members might not participate in leadership activities as often as younger ones. Five were college graduates, six more had some college experience and three were high school graduates. One was divorced and the others were married. Three had income levels below $20,000, four between $20,000-$29,000, one $30,000 to $39,000, and three in the $40,000-$49,000 range. Several were land owners or managers of the family farm or business.

Eight resided on a farm, ranch or acreage, and six lived in towns of 2,500 to 9,999 population. Eleven worked outside the home, two were farm wives and one a babysitter. Eight participated actively in one or two organizations, four in 3-5 and one in 6-7 different groups.

All but one subscribed to the humanistic model of man. On a scale of twenty possible points for self-esteem, scores ranged from -4 to +17 with a mean score of 7 and average of 5 1/2.

Three measures were used to determine dominant brain hemispherecity. There was discrepancy between the figures (blob and grid) and results of questions on four people. Scores were compatible on the other respondents. Seven indicated left brain preferences, four a whole or integrated approach, and three were right brain dominant.

On the cognitive style items seven (or one half) were field independent, ten were constricted as opposed to flexible, thirteen were impulsive over reflective, twelve were cautious as opposed to risk taking and ten were intuitive as compared to three systematic (one left blank).

On the Myers-Briggs Personality Inventory nine were extroverted over five introverted, ten measured sensing over four intuitive, eight were feelers compared to six thinkers and 13 were judging to one perceptive.

On a scale of 12 possible points for ego development scores ranged from -8 to +8 with average score being 1 and the median at zero. This was in response to open-ended questions. Using Loevinger's terminology, the women seemed to be in the conformist stage of security from belonging, values of appearance, conformity to group norms, impressing others, niceness, helpfulness, moralistic and stereotypic thinking.

Scores on the stress indicator ranged from 18 to 47 with the average being 28 and the mean at 24. Two extremely high scores skewed the results. All reported some measure of stress which, although a subjective report, could indicate interference with learning at least in some cases.

The majority of those surveyed indicated that they believe in the humanistic model that is based on the premise that a person is free to choose how to respond to situations; the essence of people is inside of themselves; people are controlled by their own consciousness. This model directs study of people by their experiences. This is opposed to the behaviorist point of view that the behavior of people is manipulated by stimuli outside of themselves.

CONCLUSIONS

Following the pilot survey, over 1,000 persons in Nebraska attended the program designed to increase self-confidence in their ability to handle situations in which they might have leadership responsibilities. Topics incorporated into the workshop help close the gap between existing skill level and that needed to demonstrate confident, positive leadership. These skills include: making introductions, shaking hands, personal appearance and posture, communications, public speaking, positive self-talk and personal power. Potential exists to reach 20,000 people by the end of 1989 through the Nebraska Council of Home Extension Clubs.

The success of the program was brought to the attention of the Family Community Leadership Board of Directors in Nebraska and they approved the information to be used in the training of their team members. As people are presenting a program, their image should be a positive statement not only for themselves but for the organization or business that they represent. This program gives the Family Community Leadership team members even more skill in becoming a positive influence in our communities.

Requests for the program materials have come from over a dozen states as well as from groups across Nebraska. This indicates that people believe that the impression we make when presenting ourselves affects the success of our mission. Each of us must sell ourselves as well as our cause. How we communicate what we are about by words, actions and attire greatly determines how we will be viewed and accepted by others. Even though the skills presented are common experiences for many of us, there is a need to improve upon them in order to improve our image.

The logical next step is to develop a program for organizational image. We have plans to begin using it beginning this fall. When we make an impression, we not only send a personal image, but we are presenting an image of the organization we represent.

EVALUATION

A state-wide evaluation of the program will be held in the fall of 1989 at district meetings of the Nebraska Council of Home Extension Clubs. At this time people from the counties will report on how they presented the materials and how useful they were to them.

IMPLICATIONS

The importance of the image program completed in Nebraska is two-fold. First, over 1,000 persons became more cognizant of how strengthening their image improved their ability to cope in leadership situations. Second, and more importantly, it illustrates that the development of leadership is more than teaching people organizational skills on working effectively as a leader. Providing individuals with the skills to develop a positive self-concept in leadership settings is the important thrust. Ultimately, self-esteem and a well thought through image are variables that must be considered in the leadership chain. Effectively creating a good image is within the power of every individual. Appearing successful is the first step in being a success.

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DEVELOPING A CADRE OF LEADERS IN EXTENSION HOMEMAKERS

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INTRODUCTION

Background and Purpose

Extension Homemakers is one of the largest adult volunteer educational organizations in the United States. Groups meet in their local communities for educational programs. These programs are put into action through family and community projects. Leadership potential is nourished and grows as these homemakers conduct local meetings, present programs, activate service projects and participate outside their communities with others in their county, state, nation and the world.

Prior to 1984, the leadership base in northwest Kansas was narrowly clustered in the center of our 21 county area. Most area meetings were held in three to five geographically centered counties. The professional home economists in the 21 county area provided much of the leadership that rightly was the responsibility of the volunteers.

Included in the Kansas Extension Homemakers Council Handbook is the Memorandum of Understanding Between Kansas Extension Homemakers Council and Extension Home Economics-Cooperative Extension Service, Kansas State University. This memorandum establishes guidelines for the role of the professional home economist and her relationship to the Extension Homemaker organization. She is to serve as an advisor and consultant, to provide subject matter training and to teach leadership development.

The purpose of this project is to provide support for the current leaders in the Extension Homemaker organization, to encourage the development of new leaders and to broaden the geographic base of that leadership. A long range goal is to have volunteers from all 21 counties serving in active leadership roles at some time during the 10 year period 1983 throughout 1992.

Rationale

There are many definitions of leadership but most importantly it is a growing process. Leadership is developed progressively from simple task management to challenging perceptive leadership. Deshler (1988) indicates that growth occurs when we look beyond where we are to where we can be; that there is a value in future orientation and vision. A good leader creates an environment where futuring techniques can be used to increase the productivity of an organization.

Leadership involvement in northwest Kansas Extension Homemaker programs could be encouraged and strengthened in several ways.

* Develop an outline of routine responsibilities and tasks related to area meetings and workshops.

* Hold a planning session with key volunteer leaders and related extension professionals several months prior to each area meeting workshop.

* Establish a rotation schedule for the hosting of area meetings and workshops, thus expanding the leadership base from a nucleus of persons in a few centrally located counties to include homemakers in all counties.

* Encourage a geographic diversity in key area leadership positions by using a nominating committee composed of four homemakers--one from each five or six county district.

METHODS

Past area meetings and workshops were reviewed and a responsibility outline was developed by consensus. The consensus method of conflict management is encouraged through the Kansas Family Community Leadership program. It helps to bring about mutually satisfying solutions. The responsibility outline (shown on the following pages) is filled with logistical assignments. Pre-determining those responsibilities allows leaders to move from routine detail management to more productive program development. Time that was previously spent deciding who would print the program can now be spent on determining the program content.

Extension Homemakers were receptive to the idea of rotating hosting responsibilities for the major area meetings. They look forward to the meetings and generate ideas several years in advance of their assigned hosting times. Several months prior to each area meeting or workshop, the key volunteer leaders and extension professional counterparts meet with the Northwest Area Director for Extension Homemakers and her advisor, the Area Extension Home Economist. Routine management tasks are reviewed and clarified but the major agenda is directed toward program development.

To encourage a geographic diversity in volunteer leadership positions, a nominating committee was established. Membership of the committee includes four homemakers (one from each district in the Northwest area) and the area director, with the area home economist serving as advisor. Because of the high priority given to leadership development, the committee is diligent in seeking to expand the number of qualified candidates for entry level positions.

RESULTS

The effectiveness of these leadership development and expansion efforts is evidenced by the increasingly active roles of our homemakers, not only in this 21 county area but in the state homemaker organization as well.

Leaders are more sure of their responsibilities and more confident to fulfill them because of the planning session interaction. The responsibility outline gives encouragement and support to new leaders and serves as a check point for more skilled leaders. Rotating the location of major meetings has provided the opportunity for homemakers to share their stories of community history and growth through guest speakers and tours.

In 1983, major leadership came from only ten of the 21 counties. By 1989, homemakers from 18 counties had filled major leadership roles. More counties have become involved and committed to programs because some of their own have assumed leadership positions.

Leadership participation in the state organization has also grown. Twenty-eight percent (7 of 25 positions) of the state board members are from the northwest area. This is a high percentage considering the fact northwest homemakers comprise only 13% of the total membership.

NW KEHC RESPONSIBILITIES OUTLINE
DISTRICT AND AREA MEETINGS

Building and strengthening volunteer leadership is a primary goal of the Extension Homemaker program.

To encourage and support that leadership, this outline of responsibilities has been developed for the major NW area meetings and workshops. A rotating schedule for hosting provides the opportunity for each county to accept leadership for these meetings.

HOSTING SCHEDULE

	District Homemaker Week Meetings				Spring Area Council Meetings	Fall Area/Workshop & Council Mtg.
	1st Week in May				3rd Thursday in April	3rd Thursday in November
1984	Logan	Sheridan	Smith	Ness		Thomas
1985	Wallace	Graham	Osborne	Barton	Smith	Ellis
1986	Thomas	Norton	Russell	Rush	Sherman	Gove
1987	Sherman	Decatur	Rooks	Trego	Russell	Sheridan
1988	Cheyenne	Gove	Phillips	Ellis	Rawlins	Trego
1989	Rawlins	Sheridan	Smith	Ness	Phillips	Decatur
1990	Logan	Graham	Osborne	Barton	Wallace	Rooks
1991	Wallace	Norton	Russell	Rush	Cheyenne	Ness
1992	Thomas	Decatur	Rooks	Trego	Osborne	Logan
1993	Sherman	Gove	Phillips	Ellis	Barton	Graham
1994	Cheyenne	Sheridan	Smith	Ness	Rush	Norton

RESPONSIBILITIES-DISTRICT HOMEMAKER WEEK MEETINGS

I. HOSTESS COUNTIES	DATE DUE
A. Duties	
1. Meeting of hostess CEAs & CEHC Presidents, NW KEHC Area Director, and AEHE to select: - speaker(s) - theme - meeting format	June
2. Meeting site arrangements	
3. Meal arrangements	Fall/Winter
4. Registration	
5. Decorations, name tags, etc.	
6. Program booklets (order covers from KSU). Include ALL NW Area educational program awards in booklet.	
7. Program numbers-welcome, invocation, entertainment, group singing, etc.	
8. Door prizes, if desired	
9. Letter to every county, KEHC Area Director and AEHE with information on registration and general plans for the day.	March
10. Invite special local guests as appropriate (AEHE will invite state guests).	April
11. Corsages for local guests as appropriate	
12. First day hostess provide silk flower corsages for speaker(s), Area KEHC Director, and AEHE (see AEHE budget).	
13. Publicity-newspaper, radio, TV, etc.	
B. Budget-paid by hostess county or divided between all counties in district.	
1. Meals for speaker(s), Area KEHC Director, KEHC elected state officers, AEHE, KSU administrators and local guests.	
2. Door prizes	
3. Program covers	
4. Building rental	
5. Stage decorations	
6. Table decorations	
7. Local guest corsages (area and speaker corsages listed in Area budget).	

II. EVERY COUNTY

A. Send to Area KEHC Director: — March 15
- Member recognition applications - 50, 55, 60 etc. years
- EHU Standard of Excellence report
- New EHU's

B. Send to Host County as requested: — March 15
- List of EHU presidents, etc.

C. Prepare name tags

D. Send $30 check for speaker expenses to NW Home Economics, Northwest Research-Extension Center — April 1

E. Publicity - newsletter, newspaper, radio, TV, etc.

III. AREA KEHC DIRECTOR

A. Meeting of hostess CEAs and CEHC Presidents, NW KEHC Area Director, and AEHE to select: — June
- speaker(s)
- theme
- meeting format

B. Prepare for and present:
- Standard of Excellence Awards
- Unit Awards for 50, 55, 60, etc. years
- Area Educational Program Awards
- Member awards for 50, 55, 60, etc. years

C. Send list of all NW Area awards to every county (with assistance of AEHE). — April 1

IV. AREA EXTENSION HOME ECONOMIST

A. Duties

1. Meeting of hostess CEAs and CEHC Presidents, NW KEHC Area Director, and AEHE to select: — June
   - speaker(s)
   - theme
   - meeting format

2. Contact speaker(s) and arrange for: — Summer
   - travel
   - lodging, meals
   - honorarium
3. Send to each county publicity and pictures of speaker(s). — March 1
4. Send invitations for all meetings to Assistant Director Extension Home Economics, KEHC elected officers, Head, NWREC and NW Area Extension Director. — April 1
5. Assist Area KEHC Director with list of all NW awards.
6. Present "Greetings from the NW Area Office" at each meeting (approximately 5 minutes).

B. Budget--$30 per county
   1. Speaker(s) - honorarium
      - lodging, meals
      - travel
   2. Corsages for speaker(s), Area KEHC Director, and AEHE

V. AREA COUNCIL MEMBERS (CEHC PRESIDENTS, AREA EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM CHAIRMAN, STATE APPOINTED OFFICERS/CHAIRMEN IN NW AREA)

A. There will not be reimbursement for mileage and meals for these district meetings.

RESPONSIBILITIES-NW AREA SPRING COUNCIL MEETING

(Area Council includes CEHC Presidents, Area Educational Program Chairmen, State Officers/Chairmen in NW Area, AEHE, Area KEHC Director and CEAs)

		DATE DUE
I.	HOSTESS COUNTY	
	A. Duties	
	1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to plan agenda and special program needs.	January
	2. Meeting site arrangements	
	3. Luncheon arrangements	
	4. Coffee hour, bonding exercise, name tags, registration (ongoing booklets for each county)	
	5. Program numbers - welcome, invocation, special program and entertainment, etc.	
	6. Decorations, as needed	
	7. Letter to every county, Area KEHC Director and AEHE with information on registration and general plans for the day.	March 1
	8. Program agenda/booklet	
	B. Budget	
	1. Name tags	
	2. Coffee hour	
	3. Building rental	
	4. Decorations	
	5. Local guests complimentary meals	
	6. Programs	
II.	EVERY COUNTY	
	Reservations sent to hostess county as requested.	
III.	AREA KEHC DIRECTOR	
	A. Duties	
	1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to plan agenda and special program needs.	January
	2. Prepare business agenda (with AEHE)	April 1

3. Conduct business meeting

IV. AREA EXTENSION HOME ECONOMIST

A. Duties

1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to plan agenda and special program needs.	January
2. Prepare business agenda (with Area Director), send to hostess county for inclusion on program agenda.	April 1

V. AREA COUNCIL MEMBERS

A. There may be some reimbursement for mileage if county office transportation is not available.

RESPONSIBILITIES-NW AREA FALL WORKSHOP AND COUNCIL MEETING

I. HOSTESS COUNTY	DATE DUE
A. Duties	
1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to select theme, agenda, speaker, entertainment, afternoon option for persons not attending business meeting, etc.	June
2. Meeting site arrangements for general sessions, educational program workshops, business meetings, etc.	
3. Luncheon arrangements - complimentary meals are as listed in Area KEHC Director's budget	
4. Coffee hour, bonding exercise, name tags, registration (ongoing booklets for each county)	
5. Program numbers - welcome, invocation, entertainment, group singing, afternoon option, etc.	
6. Decorations as needed	
7. Letter to every county, Area KEHC Director and AEHE with information on registation and general plans for the day	Sept. 15
8. Hostesses - general and for each Educational Program Workshop	
9. Publicity - newsletter, newspaper, radio, TV	
10. Program booklet	
B. Budget	
1. Programs	
2. Name tags	
3. Decorations	
4. Coffee hour	
5. Building rental	
6. Local guests complimentary meals	

II. EVERY COUNTY

Reservations sent to hostess county as requested.

III. AREA KEHC DIRECTOR

A. Duties

1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to plan agenda and special program needs — June
2. Preside at general sessions
3. Conduct business meeting
4. Contact Area Educational Program Chairmen about their workshop plans and budget allowances

B. Budget

1. Meals for speakers, Area KEHC Director, area chairmen presenting workshops, and other guests as appropriate
2. Educational program workshop expenses

IV. AREA EXTENSION HOME ECONOMIST

A. Duties

1. Meeting of Area KEHC Director, AEHE, Hostess CEA and CEHC President to plan agenda and special program needs — June
2. Invite special guests and ask them to present brief remarks: Assistant Director Extension Home Economics, President KEHC, Head NWREC, and NW Area Extension Director
3. Luncheon speaker arrangements

B. Budget

Speaker - honorarium, lodging, meals, and travel

V. AREA EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM CHAIRMEN - DURING FIRST YEAR OF ROTATION PLUS MEMBERSHIP AND YOUNG HOMEMAKERS EVERY YEAR

A. Duties

1. Plan workshop sessions (approximately 1 hour). Include:
   - state and area emphasis

- reports - how to compete
- educational program presentation

2. Contact hostess county for special needs - equipment, room arrangements, etc.

B. Budget
As designated by Area KEHC Director

VI. AREA COUNCIL MEMBERS

1. There may be some reimbursement for mileage if county office transportation is not available.

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LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR MISSOURI COMMUNITY BETTERMENT

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INTRODUCTION

Missouri's economic productivity, quality of life and democratic form of government ultimately rest on the capabilities of its citizens. In times of social change and diminishing resources, it is particularly important for individuals to work together to resolve human problems. Individuals are challenged to assume expanded leadership roles, to gather facts and to help address concerns and opportunities facing communities today. Missourians need to continue to become more informed and confident in whatever roles they find themselves and competent to make decisions based on their personal convictions using their leadership skills.

As individuals further develop their skills and share their knowledge with others they increase their ability to function effectively as concerned citizens in a political environment.

In a statewide strategic planning process conducted by University Extension in 1987-88, participants identified leadership development as one of the nine priority initiatives to be undertaken by the organization.

Leadership training has also been identified as a need by the State Department of Economic Development (DED) in their Missouri Community Betterment (MCB) program. They acknowledge that effective leadership is a critical component of successful community improvement projects.

PURPOSE

In order to increase community improvement activities and citizen involvement, a pilot project has been established in four rural Missouri communities. The project focuses on teaching leadership and group process

techniques to a team of community leaders, encouraging communities to engage in a long-term community goal setting process, and involving youth in community decision-making.

METHOD

The project known as Missouri Community Leadership (MCL) is jointly sponsored by the Missouri Department of Economic Development and Family Community Leadership (FCL), a program of University Extension and the Missouri Extension Homemakers Association (MEHA).

The State Department of Economic Development believes that community betterment is anything done in and by the community to make it a better place to live. MCB is a state program offered to communities to help bring about overall community development. It is primarily a program of technical assistance and recognition. (1) The Department expressed an interest in strengthening the leadership aspect of the program.

Like other FCL programs, Missouri's program is designed to increase the leadership capabilities of those who have traditionally not been represented in the public decision making process. Even though the FCL program is relatively new in Missouri it is recognized as having a proven record of accomplishments in training leaders in the state.

A common belief between both organizations was that the FCL training model could be an effective addition to work being done through MCB.

This was the first collaboration for FCL and the Missouri Department of Economic Development.

MCL is one of four projects funded by the Rural Crisis Recovery Programs Act of 1987. It was selected in support of University Extension's continued commitment and increased opportunity to network with other organizations and programs to further address the needs involving rural community leadership development and economic development. It was funded for one year beginning March 1, 1989.

Members from both the FCL State Board and from DED formed the project committee. It was responsible for naming the project, for selecting the communities to participate , for selecting individuals to form the training teams, for planning and conducting scheduled trainings, and for overseeing general operations of the project.

The project, named Missouri Community Leadership, uses in part the title descriptions of each program - Family Community Leadership and Missouri Community Betterment and describes what was to be the program thrust.

Community selection was based on four criteria: 1) communities in economically depressed areas; 2) communities expressing an interest in leadership development; 3) communities which may have had past involvement in MCB but no longer participated; and 4) communities in close proximity to allow for more accessible group interaction and ease in administering the project.

The selected communities were located around a relatively new lake (Truman Lake) in the West Central part of the state. With a promising tourism future, these communities felt a need to plan now for community growth, not only for the tourism trade but also to be more attractive to industries as well as to increase the satisfaction of their current citizens.

The committee recognized that community leader support from elected officials was crucial. In each community either the Mayor or chairman of the economic development committee was contacted to determine their interest in the project. Their support was requested, and they were asked to identify community leaders to be involved.

In Missouri the typical FCL teaching team is one Extension professional and one professional volunteer-these volunteers are members of MEHA. MCL adopted a modified team teaching model - three persons, an Extension professional, an Extension homemaker - when possible, and a community leader.

The team selection criteria included information provided by University Extension staff-particularly the cooperating Regional Director, county extension homemaker councils and recommendations by the staff of DED.

The team expectations as outlined by the committee included a working knowledge of the processes that contribute to community improvement, a familiarity with the Missouri Community Betterment program, an understanding of how to identify leaders that should be involved in community improvement and an understanding of techniques to involve them, and an understanding of how to bring together and train a small group of individuals to complete a community goal setting plan.

The selected teams participated in the 1989 FCL State Institute. These individuals completed the 30 hours of FCL training and also received six hours

of community development and MCB instruction. Additional meetings on available University and state government resources and community development training were held in retreat settings.

A retreat is scheduled prior to the completion of the one year project which will include the training teams and at least five additional leaders from each community. The purpose of this retreat is to review the communities' long-range goals, to celebrate their successes, and to prepare for the annual MCB Conference.

One of the purposes stated earlier was to involve youth in the decision-making process. While team members recognize youth involvement as essential, youth have not been included in the community planning stages. They feel strongly that youth should be more community minded and continue to look for ways to include them. Another special project of FCL involving leadership skill development and community awareness for youth participating in the Job Training Partnership Act program may provide an avenue for youth involvement.

RESULTS

University Extension will conduct the evaluation of this and other Rural Crisis Recovery Act projects. However, a series of videotapes are currently being developed to show the progress of each community. The tapes will emphasize the experiences of the participating communities and the importance of leadership training as a critical component of community improvement.

DISCUSSION

Each of the four teams has taken a different approach in working in their communities. Some see theirs as an educational role and are presenting FCL programs to enhance the communities' leadership skills. Others view their role as helping community leaders select projects and move to the completion of those projects. They each bring different strengths to the project and are making it work effectively.

Whatever role the teams play, community leaders attribute many efforts such as clean-up days and downtown beautification to the MCL project. But more importantly citizens are coming together in town meetings, led by the MCL team members, to discuss not only current community needs but also to plan for the future.

Because this project was dependent upon the team members participating in the March FCL State Institute and because MCL was selected for funding in mid-February, minor revisions in the plan were needed. As a result team members played an active role in designing the program - from their selection as team members to program topics and speakers - to best benefit each community.

One team member described the intent of the program best:

"I feel that this group is on its way to a much better tomorrow. These communities before have felt very stranded, very neglected and helpless. With the training and support we are receiving, we all feel that we can start to finally make a difference in our communities and reflect to others.

Without the educational leadership MCL provides we would still be sitting and wishing."

The MCL project has also provided an opportunity for the FCL State Board to explore a number of unique teaching possibilities and to broaden its view of what FCL can be in Missouri.

SUMMARY

The 1980's have seen the decline of many rural communities, but there have been some that have prospered. A study sponsored by the National Governor's Association in seven mid-western states discovered several answers when they asked "Why do some communities grow while others fade away?" One result of many indicated that "Well-organized partnerships of local leaders contribute to economic growth and diversification." (2)

In Missouri, this leadership project has formed the catalyst of a strong partnership not only in each individual community but among the four communities as well. Community leaders are excited with the results so far and are looking forward to the future.

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INITIATING LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

The trends toward public policy education and issue based programs have increased the need to involve clientele to a greater extent in their own educational goals. Participant-centered training has been useful in extension education. But, now more than ever, people need additional help to cope with rapid societal change, new technology, fewer financial resources, and a more complex world.

PURPOSE

This program was designed to prepare individuals to increase their personal learning and leadership skills by allowing extension clientele to teach others and become more actively involved in their informal education.

LITERATURE REVIEW

According to Spencer and Sorensen (1982), participant-centered training requires extension educators to have both faith in themselves and their clients. "...Extension educators must trust in people's ability to help design their own learning environment and have faith in their own patience and ability to guide educational processes by example rather than by the weight of subject matter expertise (p. 23)."

A common characteristic of professionals in development work is the emphasis on imparting knowledge and attitudes while ignoring or downgrading the importance of people's contribution (Hayden, 1979). Professionals often view their role as one of problem solver (e.g. defining a problem and giving a solution). Such an attitude limits solutions to "those that fall within the

expertise or disciplinary perspective of the teacher." It also severely limits the extension client or volunteer to effectively interact, develop, and learn new concepts and skills.

In the Spencer and Sorensen (1982) study, it was found that the expertise of the clients was equally valid in working out solutions. The program I am about to describe supports this finding and indicates how participant-centered programs may be applied to local extension efforts.

SITUATION

It was recognized that within rural Hill County, Montana that a number of extension homemakers felt hesitant to lead a group, speak out on an issue, or obtain employment because they perceived themselves to lack confidence and leadership skills. One woman expressed that she felt unable to purchase a newspaper down the street without discussing this with her husband. The homemakers expressed this concern informally at meetings and observation and discussion confirmed that this was an issue.

At the same time, a reduction in the county extension staff further elevated the need to create programs that involved extension clientele to a greater extent in program planning and delivery.

METHOD

Through the mutual input of the extension staff and the homemakers council, it was decided to:

1) Allow homemakers clubs and individuals (with extension support and assistance) to plan, carry out, and teach community workshops. (Ideas for workshops underwent a blind review by members to determine those of most interest.)

2) Additional time went into communicating the need for participant input via an extension newsletter published at the beginning of each month.

3) Changes in participation, enrollment, and use of educational materials and suggested learning activities were carefully monitored during the following year and for two additional years after this method was initiated.

FINDINGS

During the first year, extension homemakers in local club units, conducted programs, introduced speakers, and publicized their programs in the extension newsletter and the local media. The extension staff answered questions and worked individually with the planning efforts when asked. During the programs, however, the extension staff could mostly be found setting up chairs and giving encouragement to the speakers and supporting club members. In the beginning, it was difficult for the extension staff to have such a passive role--to "sit on their hands" and worry whether to intervene should a problem arise.

That first year there were mistakes. Some program publicity was misrepresented in the media. There was stage fright. One program involved a foods demonstration which was planned for 20 participants. Ninety attended.

But there were many successes, too. Program participation doubled. Members who taught the lessons learned more about their topics. Members attending the sessions gave recognition to the presenter and more of an effort was made to try learning activities because the material was presented on their level. In one session, the presenter involved all members of the audience having participants come up row-by-row to try the new techniques.

It was found that the newsletter was a good communication tool that reinforces the message that participant centered programs were not only happening, but that they were successful, too. The newsletters were also found to be a good source of recognition for individuals and clubs who planned the programs.

The extension newsletters were filled with all kinds of idea generating articles and directions submitted by both extension staff and clientele. Clientele requested agricultural topics also be written for the home economics newsletter. A "clip and send" feature was added to the newsletter as efforts were made to get additional information and resource lists to members and the community. All requests were sent promptly and shelf space was allocated so that materials could be easily distributed by the office secretary.

Extension staff found more time to write additional newsletter articles, prepare columns for the newspaper, make home visits, and interview homemakers for radio programs. An opportunity arose to involve homemakers in an interior design home study course and time was allocated to administer this program for over 75 participants (the largest single educational activity in the history of the county).

Members visited other local clubs to present programs and set up a resource file of program offerings. Homemakers worked with 4-H members and EFNEP homemakers. 4-H members gave demonstrations at local club meetings. Several EFNEP homemakers joined extension homemakers clubs and one was elected to the county council.

Increased publicity about the extension homemakers stimulated more membership and additional funds for programs sponsored by the local merchants.

During the first year, enrollment in the extension homemakers increased fifty percent. A club which had disbanded several years before, started up again. Twenty-five percent noted that they had used at least one of the ideas suggested at a club meeting, in the newsletter, or at a workshop.

Within two years, the extension homemaker membership increased one hundred percent, with 350 more households requesting the extension newsletter. An active EFNEP homemaker was able to obtain a job as manager of housekeeping services at a local motel.

Five percent of the homemakers in the county sought and obtained employment in their local communities. An additional ten percent volunteered for a community project who had never volunteered before or who volunteered in addition to a previous volunteer commitment.

There was a five hundred percent increase in requests for information at the extension office and ninety-five percent indicated they had used at least one of the ideas suggested at a club meeting, in the newsletter, or at a county workshop. One hundred percent of the clubs prepared an exhibit of their activities at the county fair during the final year we collected information on this effort.

CONCLUSIONS

Although an original premise for this participant-centered program was to save extension staff time, it was found that the staff actually spent more time with people and their program concerns. At first, extension staff found it difficult to rely on clientele to conduct their own programs, but they found it stimulating to be able to seek out additional resources, administer new programs to support clientele efforts, and to share the accomplishments achieved by these homemakers as they became leaders in their communities. The

extension newsletter was a key tool in communicating the concept, sharing ideas, and keeping everyone informed of the progress that was being made.

The results of the participant-centered learning, without increasing the funds in the county program, support Spencer and Sorensen's (1982) conclusion that participants are able to provide exciting, meaningful learning experiences with a little training and practice. Increases in learning and participation were noted, also.

POSTSCRIPT

I am currently an extension specialist in another state. By applying these participant-centered principles with a monthly newsletter, I have had similar successes working with extension agents.

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BUILDING STAKEHOLDER OWNERSHIP IN INTERDISCIPLINARY PROGRAMS

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"I know of no safe depository of the ultimate powers of the society but the people themselves. And if we think them not enlightened enough to exercise their control with wholesome discretion, the remedy is not to take it from them but to inform their discretion."
Thomas Jefferson[1]

Broad-based community participation in the early planning phases of issues programming is essential for many reasons, but perhaps most important - on grounds of equity. It would be unethical not to significantly involve those who are stakeholders in the social changes contemplated.[2] Secondly, the more complex the problem, the wider the set of skills required to define the concern and act upon the alternative issue options generated. And lastly, to achieve success the cooperation of diverse stakeholders, including social and economic institutions, is necessary to assure adequate political support in the implementation of the proposed policy.

These statements may seem on paper to be lofty ideals that could add to the work of the educator making it more complex and difficult. In practice, however, they are common sense and are some of the principles upon which Extension agents have acted traditionally when they are most effective. As Extension moves into increased emphasis on interdisciplinary issues programming, the practice of broad-based community participation, drawing on the talent of diverse views is likely to be seen as a "given". Not only common sense but recent research underscore this statement.

Stressing that it is an illusion to think that one can know the true needs of a community, society or culture without some meaningful form of participation, Mitroff writes "an expert is not a special kind of person, but each person is a special kind of expert, especially when it comes to each person's problem or more generally, troubles" (Mitroff in Seidman, 1983). Time and again social science literature shows that for successful implementation of a policy to occur, people must be involved in the formulation of that policy.

DEVELOPING ISSUE OWNERSHIP

The concept of stakeholder/public involvement in addressing social issues places emphasis on "ownership" of the problem and "commitment" to the resolution of the concern rather than transference of responsibilities to others. The participative approach is by definition more inventive and proactive to the future rather than adaptive and reactive to trends. Assuming ownership of the problem implies that adults understand the issues of their society, not just intellectually but from the standpoint of doing something about their concern. The "owning" of the problem requires the rejection of an approach toward problems that allows for denial ("the contamination of our ground water is not a problem") or withdrawal ("Don't tell me about the loss of business on Main Street. I buy on the way home from work. It's not my problem.").

Each of the characteristics of ownership -- intention, invention, proaction and commitment -- tend to motivate and energize the stakeholder to action. Participants self-select their roles and their personal commitment to the resolution of the concern carries the project forward.

IMPROVING QUALITY THROUGH DIVERSITY

Efforts to involve diverse viewpoints tend to add to the quality as well as the quantity of decisions reached. Developing partnerships both internal to Extension and external with other stakeholders, volunteers, agencies, organizations and public officials, will naturally contribute to the diversity of participants. However, conscious attention to the expansion of group diversity can further enhance the quality and public acceptability of decisions reached. Three such considerations to make the group more heterogeneous are age, cultural background, and differing value systems.

Age

The most accessible opportunity to add to the diversity of the decision making body is to involve a cross section of the community by age. Unfortunately, often both the young and the elderly are overlooked when people are recruited to participate. Yet what better means is there to generate new ideas than fusing the experiences, interests, values and energy of three generations? Such an approach with its potentially creative interactions could result in commonly held ownership that would likely balance the needs of the community for some time into the future. Extension has historically worked with people across the age spectrum. Bringing these diverse clients together more frequently is a very natural next step in the search for quality in issue programming.

Cross-Cultural Differences

Western culture tends to accept a one right way to think about things. Much of our educational system is geared toward teaching people the one right answer. However, as Rogers von Oech states "one right way may be fine for some mathematical problems where there is in fact only one right answer. The difficulty is that most of life doesn't present itself in this way. Life is ambiguous; there are many right answers - all depending on what you are looking for. But if you think there is only one right answer, then you will stop looking as soon as you find one." This creativity consultant of national repute maintains that the cultural trait of looking for "one right answer" is one of ten major mental locks that inhibit creativity (Von Oech, 1983).

Diversity is important not only when creative answers are sought but also in the formulation of the questions. How questions are asked predetermines what options will be appropriate for addressing the issues. Problem definition is directly linked to the need for knowledge and the appropriate action that follows (this point is discussed more thoroughly at a latter point in this paper).

Another researcher, Maruyama, writes about the advantages of diversification and heterogeneity in decision making -- especially the effects of different individual patterns of reasoning, cognition and conceptualization found in cross-cultural groups. He refers to those variant ways of thinking as "mindscapes." The example given for cultures with heterogeneous mindscapes are Japanese, Mandenka and Navajo. These cultures assume that different persons have different views on the same situation. These different perceptions, rather than rejected and discarded, are incorporated in obtaining a richer understanding of the situation (Seidman, 1983).

Although Western culture tends to accept a one right way of thinking about things, there are examples within our own culture where we can see different mindscapes at work. The development of cooperatives is an alternative model for providing goods and services to meet the economic needs of the community. When working with people who have a mindscape that appreciates cooperative economic ventures, it opens another set of options for development. In areas where the predominant mindscape insists that "free enterprise" is the sole way of doing business, competitive enterprises will appear to be the only possibility. Bringing those two mindscapes together to resolve a community problem could result in a high-bred entity such as the Family Health Plan of Milwaukee. This Health Maintenance Organization (HMO) is organized as a cooperative and managed by a for-profit management team.

To illustrate the mindscape idea further, consider the findings of the study Ethnic Origin as Explanation for Local Land Ownership Patterns (Salamon, 1982). This research examined the affect of ethnic origin on land purchase decisions, estate planning and survival tactics during hard times. Two distinct mindscapes emerged in the research rooted in ethnic backgrounds -- farming as a way of life and farming as a business. An understanding of these differences alone is helpful in addressing problems created by the changing structure of agriculture. If those mindscapes were brought together in a common search for creative ideas to address land use problems, the improved quality of those decisions and community-wide acceptance would likely result.

Values, Vision and Creativity

People have a set of values, beliefs and expectations about themselves and society that are neither true nor false but serve as guide for their choices. We know from our experience that most of us follow operating premises that allow us to shift back and forth from specific, self-involved values to broader, public involved ones. This observation was first noted by German sociologist Max Weber who contrasted the "ethic of responsibility" with the "ethic of ultimate ends." The first described a rational, calculating approach to specific special interests and the second to making choices pursuing good ends for high purposes (Burns, 1978).

There is usually a tension between individual rights and needs and that of the community. People have different values, goals, circumstances and backgrounds that affect the level of interest or concern for the problem. On the other hand, the community at large has responsibilities for common needs which can or should transcend individual vested interests.

Nurturing group creativity and a vigorous pursuit of a shared vision for the future that takes into account the values of community members is essential to issue programming. A vision is a result you want to create. It promotes individual and group acceptance of ownership, and responsibility, and creates energy for action. Stakeholders require opportunities to visualize and invent a scenario where the issue has been resolved and is no longer of concern.

There are no cookbook steps to suggest that will produce a vision or creative flash. Nor does vision derive from a study of circumstances, analysis of trends or policy precedence. Indeed intuition, an important aspect of the generation of creative ideas, is defined by Webster as the "faculty of attaining to direct knowledge or cognition without rational thought and influence."

Vision, like creativity, is essentially an individual act and is derived out of personal responses to proactive questions. "What do I/we want to make happen?" "What future would we prefer, and what do we need to do to move toward that future?" These intentional questions differ sharply from reactive postures, "What do you want to choose among the alternatives?" or the intellectual inquiry, "What might happen or is going to happen in our community?"

Although vision and creativity spring from the "inner self." there are a number of strategies which can be useful in the unleashing of the creative potential in the group setting. For instance, transformational leadership is well adapted to pursuing solutions where values are diverse and a multiplicity of systems overlap. This leadership approach recognizes the value of intuitive, qualitative thinking and embraces and integrates pluralistic differences. Needs assessment processes such as futuring and Charrette are designed to generate new ideas. Encouragement of a broad search for alternatives, risk-taking, and a win-win approach to conflict can unleash new options for change. Careful attention to the organizational environment and the personal characteristics of the group members will also nurture creative possibilities. In fact, perhaps the most obvious way to gain fresh insight in any situation may be the recruitment of group members with varied backgrounds and values, thereby generating a range of views and ways to articulate needs. Pluralistic groups are not likely to settle for status quo (Miller, 1988).

Four positive points are reiterated to underscore the advantages of involving the stakeholders early: (1) increased range and depth of skills, (2) greater cooperation and political support, (3) high motivation and energy from ownership, and (4) improved equity in decisions reached.

Do not underestimate the negative side of working with diverse groups, however. Heterogeneous groups take longer to reach consensus and usually require more resources, conflict management and negotiation skills. Good judgment as to which issues require significant involvement of diverse stakeholders should be exercised.

Addressing Interdisciplinary Issues

Extension across the country is currently developing strategies to scan local communities for the most acute issues that fall into the purview of Extension. Even without seeing the list that will be generated in the near future, it is a safe bet that most if not all will be what Mitroff labeled ill-structured problems. These problems do not respond well to single subject expertise. They are social problems which do not lend themselves to textbook

answers. They not only vary in their definitions from stakeholder to stakeholder; they vary over time as well. The problem of today's society are dynamic. Problem definition, issue formulation and consideration of individual values are at the heart of adequate response (Seidman, 1983).

The definition of issues is not the same for all interest groups, affected parties or experts. Individuals differ strongly on how to define an issue. They differ no less strongly in how they see the link between available knowledge and what should be done to resolve the concern. To reiterate an earlier point, while knowledge deals in matters of fact (''what is'') the choice of appropriate action (remedy) deals with matters of value, (what ought to be done). It follows that any methodology used for addressing complex and ever-changing social issues must be participative.

In Figure I on the next page, Mitroff proposed a set of steps for addressing the kind of social and economic problems which cannot be partitioned neatly into a set of separate, independent factors with one right answer.

Figure I. Steps in a General Methodology for Addressing Ill-Structured Problems

Step	Activities	Purpose
1.	Team building, partitioning of larger social group into small groups	Effective group functioning, interaction, conditions for participation, explicit generation of different views
2.	Stakeholder identification/ generation	Identification of vested interest groups/actors affecting a social issue
3.	Assumption generation/ identification	Identification of premises that must be considered to identify competing social policies
4.	Prioritization of assumptions and structured debate	Determination of the limits and validity of key knowledge claims
5.	Argumentation analysis	Determination of the relationship between assumptions and social policies
6.	Knowledge synthesis, group synthesis	Group integration, knowledge integration

(Modified from Ian I. Mitroff in Seidman 1983)

When doing issues programming and multiple stakeholders are working in partnership, it may be somewhat difficult to define appropriate roles for all involved. Figure II below and the explanation following is an effort to identify the steps for addressing community problems and illustrating these points in the process where Extension agents can make their most important contributions.

Figure II. Community Problem Solving Roles

Situation	Problems/Opport.	Issues (Controv)	Strategies[5]	Action[6] Eval[7]
[1] Topic and Sub-Topic Descriptions	Social/Economic Imbalances;Citizen Intended Futures	Remedies Common & Individual Concerns with Alternative Solutions	Resources Natural, Monetary Time, Expertise, Supporters Competitor Power/ Apathy	Success Measures Time Investment Resource Focus Available Skills/ Competencies Restraints/Supports for Action
	Secondary Data[2] Historical Records Needs Assessment			
		Education,[3] Negotiation[4] Compromise		

Professional
Appropriate CD action
1) Assist in clarifying topic
2) Assist in clarifying situation
3) Education on alternatives
4) Process education, negotiation techniques
5) Technical, facilitator, coordinator, network assistance
6) * * * * *
7) Assist or perform evaluation

THE SITUATION

The beginning point in the figure is the identification of the situation, the topic and sub-topics to be considered. As professional educators, Extension agents are working in program areas and command considerable expertise in the discipline or field of study. Through program planning on national, state, local and individual levels, particular topics of interest surface. Even at the phase of selecting the topic, however, other interested individuals and potential partners can be identified to share in the selection and clarification of the situation. Two such points might be parent education or agricultural profitability, with sub-topic of child abuse/child care and milk quality/sustainable agriculture. Each of these topics and sub-topics are examples of ill-structured problems that suggest different possibilities for partnerships and collaboration with other groups. Both deal with constraints and present opportunities that can more easily be accomplished by working with other segments of the community, preferably at this earliest stage of program identification.

THE PROBLEM

The second step is to define the nature of the problem. A problem is the difference or gap between the way things are and the way we want them to be. Put another way -- problems are social or economic imbalances. It may even be useful to go to the Webster's dictionary for a definition because the word "problem" is often used interchangeably with that of "issue" and it is important for this discussion to make a distinction. Webster defines a problem as "a question raised for inquiry, consideration, or solution... an intricate unsettled question."

In order to adequately consider a community problem it is necessary to examine information from multiple sources, including historical records, secondary data and needs assessment as well as citizen- intended futures.[4] The more thorough and complete the search that is done in this phase of the problem solving process, the greater the possibilities of successful resolution of the concern to the satisfaction of all those involved. Careful research of the facts from diverse perspectives, the availability of concrete evidence of need and demonstrated broad-based concern provides a solid foundation. This solid ground is essential for the more controversial steps of the process, consideration of remedy and resource issues.

In spite of this last statement, it is important to note that the choice of problem selection, reaching consensus on alternative solutions and resource use has less to do with data than with the traditions, values, community or world outlooks, and spirit of the times (sociopolitical zeitgeist - this term is defined as the general, intellectual, moral and cultural state of the era).

In the face of solid evidence, however, it is probable that considerable agreement about the dimensions of the problem will be reached. To illustrate, if the information gathering is thorough, it would be hard to argue with the fact that there are X number of latch-key children in a community -- that the problem of unattended children exists. Another example is: It is known how many farm families are under stress from credit short falls for feed and seeds. The drought was experienced by all; the public needs little convincing that there is a problem. The pending loss of main stream businesses to a proposed shopping mall is another example of a current problem in which Extension has an interest. These are all problems that are shared by other entities as well as the directly affected clientele.

THE ISSUES

When considering issues, however, the context is more controversial and value laden. Webster defines an issue as "a point in question and dispute as between contending parties." when "at issue" is used it means "in controversy" and when we say to "join in issue" it is defined as "join in controversy." Clearly the emphasis is on the point of contention between parties when the word issue is used. It follows that when considering issues, the culture and values of the community and individuals are at stake and that it is the stakeholders prerogative to make the choices for action. The professional educator requires knowledge of the problem and potential resources as well as skills in communication, conflict management and negotiation. The process used to resolve the issue requires (1) equality of participation, (2) alternative ways to phrase the question, (3) wide selection of remedies and possibilities for resources, and (4) a means to prioritize the choices.

IDENTIFYING STAKEHOLDERS

Stakeholders can be classified into two broad categories: officialdom and the public. Each are likely to contribute both forces or supports for addressing the problem and/or restraints or blockages to the efforts to bring about change. Vested interests, personal circumstances and value systems will in part determine the level of involvement groups and individuals will accept in any given new venture. In the resolution of a specific problem, the professional may well start with either officialdom or the public in the initial steps.

Officialdom. According to Goodwin (1973, as in Seidman, 1983) officialdom is divided into three types of stakeholders -- donor-policymakers, administrators and delivery systems.

Donor/policymakers. Donor/policy stakeholders include elected and appointed officials at local, state and federal levels -- policymakers who through legislation and appropriations define and provide resources for meeting social and economic problems. Also included with this group are foundations, community trusts and church boards.

Often the professional has some difficulty making contact with the appropriate government or foundation official. Lack of previous exposure to political figures and policy "elites" can make the initial contacts intimidating experiences. It is important to realize that the success or failure of public officials is dependent upon open transactional relationships with others

who are concerned about addressing issues of common concern. In effect, these elected public servants need the exchange between the change agent as much or more than that agent who is trying to initiate the involvement of the official. As written in another context, "Politicians cannot survive in an organizational vacuum. While important, the individual vote is only one step in influencing representation. The transactional relationship between the citizen and the candidate, political party or elected official is all important to influencing public policy" (Miller and Neth, in Haney et al., 1988). A well prepared proposal, addressing an important problem, backed by a substantial body of constituents is a package few politicians can refuse. What is more, many would welcome early involvement in the process on issues which touch on subjects that are in the purview of their committee assignments. The staff of these elected officials are very influential and will be interested in well designed ideas for addressing the concerns of society. Expect entry to the political system and you will get it. Be prepared to make your case. Take constituents of the official along for support.

Locating the foundation which is likely to have an interest in your project or problem is a science in of itself. A starting point, however, is the local or college library that likely has a number of foundation reports and other documents to examine. In most cases, names will be listed so that initial contacts can be personalized. Reviewing the past record of the funding policy of a foundation will provide indicators of shared interest. A very useful source of information on foundations is the computerized system located at Marquette University in Milwaukee.

When contacting donor/policymakers, repetitive straight forward contacts, often through staff with well articulated purpose will turn up the support you need. Tenaciously improving relationships in a non-partisan vein will develop partnerships that can be of longstanding duration.

Administrators. Stakeholders in the administrative system have the responsibility to set guidelines in response to policy mandates of donors or policy officials. In most agencies there is considerable autonomy and flexibility in the interpretation of that policy. Each agency has its primary focus and recognizes the basic need to remain in touch with the latest research and development in the field of their work. This provides for ideal transactional relationships with educators whose expertise is in a related field. It also promotes a readiness for collaborative programming. Most agencies since the 1960's have been mandated to reflect citizen participation in their planning processes. Many agencies rely on public hearings for citizen involvement, perhaps one of the least effective methods to tap client opinion. The agent can offer the capacity to stimulate clientele involvement in making

decisions with more participatory processes. For instance, Extension has been using the Nominal Group process extensively and recently has emphasized the Futuring process. These and other examples of group approaches to needs assessment are presented in Needs Assessment: Theory and Methods. Each technique described in detail in our book is useful to increase citizen participation and one or more can be adapted to most specific situations. Working knowledge of these methods are very useful tools for the educator who wishes to work in partnership with other agencies.

The Deliverers. Stakeholders in the delivery system are those agency employees who work directly with the recipients or clients of a policy or program. While working within the guidelines of their agencies, they are as flexible or rigid as the culture of the entity that employs them and their personality allows. Individuals on this level have all the same factors affecting their conceptualization of the situation as do donors, administrators and the public. They have concern for turf with their clients and resources, are anxious about budget cuts, and have a vested interest in maintaining their jobs, status and power. Although they are under pressure to adequately or efficiently meet their objectives and those of their administration, they also are anxious to more effectively serve their clientele. As members of the community, these agency staff are likely to have high interest in the local quality of life. They very likely recognize that they can benefit directly from partnerships which further the quality of their service, add to the viability of their community service, as well as enhance their own family lifestyle. Every agent is likely to have a network of agency personnel who cooperate in special projects for mutual benefits.

PUBLIC

While working on the resolution of a common concern, the professional has certain basic obligations to the public. The professional's responsibility is not only to the vocal minority (activists who participate without special efforts to involve them) but also those who are affected by the decision but for whatever the reason need special support to get involved. James L. Creighton, the author of Public Involvement Manual, (1981) lists three basic obligations that change agents have to the silent (apathetic, hard-to-reach) majority:

1. Efforts must be made to inform the entire public of the consequences of proposed policy so that citizens can choose whether or not to be a part of the vocal minority on a particular issue.

2. Highly visible ways of participating must be made available so that people know how to participate if they want to.

3. Efforts must be made to ensure that all points of view are represented even if it is difficult to determine the relative weight that should be given to each viewpoint.

Every effort should be made to reach the public that has a stake in the decision. In issues programming the public will consist of those who perceive themselves as affected by the action. Interest groups play a surrogate role for the vast majority of the public so attention should be given to the involvement of those representative organizations and movements.

But how does the agent identify the relevant, most likely to become involved public on any given issue, especially when addressing new issues never considered before? Creighton addresses this question also. He suggests that people may see themselves as affected by a decision and open to involvement for various reasons:

1. Proximity: People who live in the immediate area of a project may be affected by noise, influx of people, or the threat of dislocation.

2. Economic gain or loss: Groups may have jobs or competitive advantages to win or lose; for example, irrigators versus power companies, minority contractors versus major established contractors.

3. Use: People's use of a service or resource may be affected by the outcome of an action.

4. Social concerns: Increasingly, people who see development activities as a threat to the tradition and culture of the local community are likely to be interested in decisions regarding these projects. They may be concerned about the influx of construction workers or the fact that a proposed project will encourage substantial population growth in the area.

5. Values: Some groups may be only peripherally affected by the first four factors but find that some of the issues raised by a proposed action directly affect their values, their sense of the way things ought to be. Whenever a proposed action touches on such issues as free enterprise versus governmental control or jobs versus environmental protection, there may be a number of individuals who participate primarily because of the values involved.

There are no easy formulas for reaching people with a vested interest in a specific issue. It is especially difficult to reach those who are not an integral part of the social system, or active in interest groups, local organizations, churches, schools, or extended family networks. These organizationally unconnected people are often the most vulnerable to the problems of society. They are prone to a sense of impotence and negative self-image or apathy.

> Parenti (1970) offers some insights based on his study of low-income residents in Newark:
>
> "If I were to offer any one explanation for nonparticipation it would be the profound and widespread belief of so many ghetto residents that there exists no means for taking effective action against longstanding grievances and that investments of scarce time, energy, money and perhaps most of all, hope, serve for naught except to aggravate one's sense of disaffection and impotence" (Johnson et al, 1989).

A Wisconsin farm couple referring to the loss of their 550 acre potato farm echoed the same sentiments when interviewed on TV. "Now they are saying, after we sold our cows and everything that we can buy back some small acreage, but it's just too late. Most of all I'm tired of being jerked around. We have no hope and would like to just get it all over" (Ch 25, Madison, WI, 12/19/88).

The reasons for not participating, however, are not all worst-case scenarios. Some insight from research poses some situations where stakeholders can be reached indirectly or new approaches can be designed to ferret out their concerns. People may not participate for reasons that can be addressed by those initiating the project:

1. They feel adequately represented by someone in the active minority. Leaders of visible interest groups often serve as "surrogates" for a much larger group of people who feel they are represented in the activities of their surrogate.

2. People don't believe the decision's impact upon them justifies participation. All citizens have the right to choose not to participate in decisions that they perceive as less important to them than earning a living, spending time with their families, or participating in other civic issues.

3. People are unaware that they are affected by a decision. If people are not told of the potential impact of a decision, they may not participate simply because they don't realize they may be affected by the decision. When they discover that they are affected, they feel doubly betrayed by government officials -- betrayed because of the impact, and betrayed because they were not told about the impact before the decision was made.

4. People don't believe they can influence the decision. One cause of apathy is people's belief that no matter what they do they will have no influence on the outcome of an issue. Without well-defined methods by which people can have a reasonable hope of influencing a decision, only the best organized interests are likely to participate (Creighton, 1981).

Some Extension agents recognize the power of networking to reach those non-participating publics who ought to be represented. Responding to a question about reaching the hard to reach a home economics agent said, "I believe that if you keep working the large and small networks, probing your personal and professional contacts, that you will find someone who has a link to the individual or family."[6] That contact can be helpful in bringing them into the group but you must be able to build trust that their views will make a difference.

A recent Gallop poll on volunteerism in the U.S. found only 4% of the population has volunteered for political activities. This finding should be of grave concern to anyone who values our democratic form of government. We can do much to meet this challenge. Throughout the entire program, the agents' most demanding and important responsibility is to assure the involvement of stakeholders who stand to benefit and/or pay for the choices made.

Let us underscore the processes and roles involved in addressing issues. The professional educator roles in community problem solving can be wide ranging and demanding. Starting with topic identification, the agent may be the initiator or join in efforts of partners from officialdom, agencies or public stakeholders. Perhaps the most time consuming effort for the educator is the definition of the problem. In order to lay a solid ground for decision making, the search for information must be thorough, looking at secondary data, historical precedents, and ideally citizen intentions. While the issues formulation phase is in progress, the agent needs familiarity with negotiation and conflict management techniques. Or, at the very least, know where to locate such services for this controversial phase. It is at this point in the resolution effort when agents need to guard against personal advocacy for a given remedy or resource option. Otherwise, they will assume risk of serious conflict for themselves in the community. This is especially true if the

issues are particularly divisive. Throughout the strategy steps the agent will likely be of assistance as technical advisor, developing success measures and expanding the networks of experts and resources for action. The final task is to either perform an evaluation or locate someone to carry out the task. Of course, elements of the evaluation should be in place very early on in the project. No one agent can do it all, but awareness of the processes involved will do much to help identify the sources of assistance available.

Conclusion

Issue education does not start with a blank slate but on the contrary, with strongly held beliefs. It follows then that our partners in issues programming should represent a diversity of cultures, values and ages to achieve quality, long lasting responses to our common needs. We are dealing with opinions and hence are involved in persuasion. No one is right, no one is wrong, and all enter on an equal standing. All must achieve an understanding that is proactive and acquire ownership that energizes for follow-through. This is especially the case when problems are those that depend for their solution upon creating a sense of community among diverse, multiple competing interests, when long-term will and energy have to be created. The ultimate question is not who will win but what, if anything, will be done.

FOOTNOTES

1. Thurlow, Constance (ed.) 1973, The Jefferson Papers of the University of Virginia, University Press of Virginia, Charlottesville.

2. See definition of stakeholders on page 8.

3. The focus of this study is on how cultural beliefs, linked to practices that derive from ethnic origin explains land use patterns. Irish, German, Swedish, Yankee and mixed ethnic communities were compared.

4. For a complete discussion of each of these information sources see Johnson et al, 1987, Needs Assessment: Theory and Methods, Iowa State University Press.

5. The term profession is used here when describing the facilitator and negotiator leadership roles in the consideration of issues. Leading community groups to identify and consider alternative remedies and to prioritize options for actions requires a non-advocacy stance on the part of the person who serves in this capacity. The use of the term professional does not imply that this leadership role is not often filled by indigenous leaders, either volunteer or official.

6. Quote taken from memory at the Expanding Leadership; Building Community Partnerships in Issue Programming Faculty Development Program, La Crosse, WI, 1989.

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EXPANDING OREGON STATE UNIVERSITY EXTENSION'S LEADERSHIP PROGRAM

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National Planning Effort

In the late 1980's, Extension Service of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the Extension Committee on Organization and Policy (ECOP) set in motion a process that would give focus and clarity to its mission. The proactive strategy was to give organizational direction for the 1990's and into the 21st century.

The planning strategy helped Extension focus on issues impacting U.S. citizens. This "focus on issues" generated nine national initiatives that are currently used as Extension's organizational agenda leading into the 21st century.

The national initiatives include:

1. Alternative Agricultural.
2. Building Human Capitol.
3. Competitiveness and Profitability of American Agriculture.
4. Conservation and Management of Natural Resources.
5. Family and Economic Well Being.
6. Improving Nutrition, Diet and Health.
7. Revitalizing Rural America.
8. Water Quality.
9. Youth at Risk.

Identification of national initiatives allowed the Extension system to concentrate resources on issues critical to the economic, social, and environmental progress of Americans.

State Response

Oregon State University Extension initiated a similar issue identification process in 1987. Looking forward to a new decade, four major educational goals were identified as important to Oregonians:

1. Economic Development.
2. Human Development.
3. Resource Conservation and Management.
4. Leadership Development.

These four elements were identified through numerous clientele surveys administered by local and state Extension staff, and Extension advisory council members.

The 1987 Extension Annual Conference continued this data collection effort. Small focus groups discussed the implications of the volumes of data that were generated. Focus groups then articulated nine initiatives:

1. Improving Economic Status of Oregon.
2. Revitalizing Oregon Communities.
3. Identifying Economic Alternatives for Oregonians.
4. Strengthening Oregon's Families: Parent Education.
5. Strengthening Oregonians' Decision Making Skills.
6. Managing Oregon Wetlands and Riparian Zones.
7. Improving Oregon's Water Quality.
8. Expanding Oregon's Extension Leadership Programs.
9. Building Family Strengths.

Noticeably several of Oregon's initiatives echo the national agenda, but in actuality have been "Oregonized".

Several other planning documents were consulted in this process: University's Long Range Plan; the Governor's "Oregon Comeback" program; and the College of Agricultural Sciences two and ten-year plans.

Leadership Rationale

Lord Montgomery in his "Memoirs of Field Marshall Montgomery" defined leadership as the capacity and will to rally men and women to a common purpose. He also suggests that a leader must have character which inspires confidence. President Truman suggested that a leader is a person who has the ability to get others to do what they don't want to do, and like it. Each developed a perspective of leadership that reflects their approach to working with people in organizations.

Organizations, communities and governments rely on local leaders to guide their affairs. Historically, OSU Extension has assisted in the development of these leaders through the work of agents and specialists in the seven program areas. This has been a welcomed challenge, one that Extension Administration sees increasing in intensity as we progress into the 1990's.

Bernie Ghiselin suggests that ". . . . to manage change, to manage crisis, to meet sudden competition, to do more with shrinking resources, managers (I would add leaders) will rely less on regulation and protectionism and more on creativity. Today innovation is as great a watch word as efficiency and productivity." To a degree, this is the philosophy that birthed the leadership initiative. Extension in Oregon has seven program areas, each with a mission and a multitude of goals. Nearly all have implemented master volunteer programs to assist in program delivery (Master Gardener, Master Food Preserver, Master Parenting, Master Angler, Master Host, FCL Trainers, Whale Watcher, Marine Science Center Volunteers, Master Shoppers, 4-H and Youth Volunteers, Master Woodland Managers, Master Conservers, and more).

The partnership between the approximate 230 paid staff and the more than 27,000 volunteer staff requires a high level of sensitivity on the part of each Extension faculty member. Faculty members are desirous of developing the leadership skills of volunteer staff. To accomplish this, faculty members need support and training. Most have little education or training in any leadership curriculum. Most were hired for their content specialization.

John Gardener, founder of Common Cause, suggested in an interview in 1986 that ". . . . the great enemy of leadership can be specialization." Herein lies the paradox that Extension faculty members face. Content specialization is required by program demands, leadership skills by program volunteers and clientele groups. It may therefore be the responsibility of the organization to supply, feed, or nurture one side of the equation (content specialization or leadership skills).

Bernie Ghiselin summarized his position by saying ". . . . if the organization is not willing to invest in leadership training, it leaves development only to the lesson of job experience and the school of hard knocks." With the adaption of the leadership initiative as an integrated program topic, OSU Extension served notice as to its organizational intent.

Process of Forming an Integrated Approach

Following the 1987 annual conference, a nineteen member "leadership initiative team" was appointed by administration. All seven program areas had at least one representative. Members determined their own level of involvement in team activities. The team was given a charge of developing an integrated in-service training package for leadership development and writing a four year plan of work that outlined that process.

Year one of the plan of work concentrated on planning and administering a needs assessment that would survey all Extension faculty members. This was completed in fall of 1988.

Concurrently, a national Extension community leadership task force was involved in their own survey that identified existing/usable Extension leadership materials. This annotated bibliography[1] would be extremely helpful in identifying materials to be used in Oregon's leadership training strategy.

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[1] Kimball, S.J. & Heasley, D.K. (1988). Extension Leadership Development Resources: U.S. and Canada Bibliography. University Park, Pennsylvania: Northeast Regional Center for Rural Development.

The leadership team combined these two items (bibliography and needs assessment) and developed a leadership training curriculum. The first training is expected to be completed by fall of 1989 (2nd year of the plan of work). Materials would be aptly supplemented by those being developed in a national Extension project titled "Working With Our Publics: In-Service Education for Cooperative Extension".

Four modules from that project will apply directly to developing leadership skills:

1. Developing Leadership (12 hours of contact training).
    a. community leadership
    b. team leadership
    c. situational leadership
    d. transactional leadership
2. Situational Analysis (12 hours of contact training).
3. Working with Groups and Organizations (18 hours of training).
4. Education for Public Decision Making (18 hours of training).

The team has proposed to Extension administration that leadership training be initiated at a 1989 leadership institute, with the possibility of regional trainings following. Paid staff would be highest priority during the first year of training (year 2 of plan) with volunteer staff the 3rd and 4th years of the plan of work.

In reviewing responses to the initiative, and looking at individual plans of work, the committee found that leadership development was an integral part of many agents' plans. In fact, the committee found that individual plans of work amounted to the following estimated FTEs:

Table 1. Estimated FTEs

Year	Professional	Paraprofessional	Volunteer
1988	9.3	1	8
1989	10.3	1.5	10
1990	12.5	1.5	15
1991	12.5	1.5	17

Needs Assessment

The leadership team chose to limit its needs assessment survey to Extension faculty members (volunteers will be administered same instrument in 1989-90). A small steering committee worked with the University Survey Research Center in developing a needs assessment questionnaire (see Exhibit #1). The Dillman survey technique was used by the Center in data collection.

The questionnaire was tested on 16 Extension professionals with their suggestions incorporated into the final draft. The initial mailing was sent out August 1, 1988, a follow-up on August 18, and a third mailing two weeks thereafter.

Response Rates

The questionnaire was distributed to all Extension professionals on and off campus. Table #2 illustrates the response rates.

Table 2. Response Rates

	Off Campus		On Campus		Total	
	(n)	%	(n)	%	(n)	%
Complete	152	87	79	92	231	89
Refused	3	2	0	0	3	1
Sabbatical	2	1	1	1	3	1
No Answer	17	10	6	7	23	9
Total	174	100	86	100	260	100

Over 90% of the on-campus faculty completed the survey, with 87% of the off-campus faculty responding.

Results

Page one of the questionnaire asked that respondents rate a list of 30 behaviors and qualities considered important for Extension leadership. They responded as to the behaviors or qualities being very important, somewhat important, not too important, or not at all important. The rank order (percent of total) of the "very important" category was as follows:

Table 3. Rank Order of Leadership Behaviors or Qualities

Quality/Behavior	Percent
Integrity	88.3
Supportive	79.6
Willing to involve others	78.8
Sense of direction	77.9
Open-minded	73.4
Willing to confront problems	72.7
Initiates (self starter)	70.1

In analyzing the data concerning leadership qualities or behaviors, the mean actually supported the results found in the percentage comparisons.

Table 4. Mean Measurements Leadership Qualities and Behaviors

Quality/Behavior	Mean	Standard Deviation
Integrity	1.1	0.3
Willing to involve others	1.2	0.4
Sense of direction	1.2	0.5
Supportive of others	1.2	0.5
Initiates (self starter)	1.3	0.5
Willing to reward others	1.3	0.5
Open-minded	1.3	0.5
Sensitive to feed back	1.3	0.5
Willing to confront problems	1.3	0.5
Able to delegate responsibility	1.3	0.5

The second question was designed to further refine respondents' priorities concerning important Extension leadership qualities or behaviors. They were asked to refer back to question #1 and rate which behavior or quality they indicated "very important", would be "most important", "second most important", and "least important".

Table 5. Rank order of Most Important Quality/Behavior

Quality/Behavior	Percent
Sense of direction	18.9
Integrity	13.5
Visionary	9.5
Decisive	5.4
Willing to involve others	5.4
Able to delegate responsibility	5.0
Initiates (self starter)	5.0

Table 6. Rank order of Second Most Important Leadership Quality/Behavior

Quality/Behavior	Percent
Sense of direction	11.4
Willing to involve others	9.5
Integrity	7.7
Supportive of others	6.8
Able to delegate responsibility	6.8

Extension faculty members rated several qualities/behaviors consistently high in each of the preceding tables: integrity, sense of direction, willing to involve others, supportive of others, and initiates (self starter).

Training Needs

The second part of the questionnaire was used to determine leadership training needs. Faculty members were asked to set priorities in reference to their "own" training needs. Response categories were "definitely need", "could benefit", and "not needed". Because this was an integrated approach to leadership training, the committee elected to use a community leadership taxonomy developed by a national Extension task force (John Micheals, ES-USDA). The taxonomy had 19 major categories with numerous sub-categories.

First, the team examined the percent response, then ran the mean and standard deviation for each sub-category. Table 7 summarizes what was found to be the highest priority training needs.

The leadership team chose to develop a curriculum and training strategy for building agreement and consensus, developing broad based support and obtaining commitments to action the first year. In the second year, training will be developed for maintaining learner interest, measuring performance, evaluation, managing conflict and stress, managing time.

October through March were rated as the best times for workshops with 70 percent saying they would be somewhat likely or very likely to attend workshops held on campus. Over 60 percent indicated a preference for regional workshops held in various geographic locations.

Table 7. Leadership Training Needs

Major Category	Sub-Category	Definitely need could benefit percent	Standard Mean	Deviation
Solving problems	Building agreement consensus	84	1.8	0.7
Solving problems	Estimating future alternatives	80	1.9	0.7
Solving problems	Identifying cooperative strategies	80	1.9	0.7
Mobilizing for group action	Developing broad based support	79	1.8	0.7
Mobilizing for group action	Obtaining commitment to action	84	1.7	0.7
Mobilizing for group action	Influencing public policy	79	1.9	0.7
Developing proficiency in teaching	Maintaining learner interest and enthusiasm	78	1.8	0.8
Directing projects or activities	Supervising	80	1.9	0.7
Directing projects or activities	Measuring performance	78	1.8	0.8
Directing projects or activities	Evaluating	80	1.8	0.7
Directing projects or activities	Maintaining supportive work environment	76	1.9	0.7
Arbitration	Managing conflict and stress	85	1.7	0.7
Arbitration	Decision making	79	1.9	0.7
Arbitration	Risk taking	78	1.9	0.7
Arbitration	Negotiating responsibilities	80	1.9	0.7
Changing behavior	Increasing productivity	80	1.9	0.7
Changing behavior	Managing time	79	1.8	0.8
Creativity	Working creatively	76	1.9	0.7

Further Analysis

Comparative analysis was run on several questions. Survey Research Center ran a chi-square or cross tab on several questions. The leadership team wanted to determine if gender, age, role in Extension, and years in Extension made any significant differences among respondents. Although the leadership team needs to work with Survey Research Center about specific interpretations, the following generalities can be made:

1. Perceptions of performance differed significantly depending on role in Extension.

2. Perceptions of evaluating differed significantly depending on role in Extension.

3. The perception concerning managing stress and dealing with conflict differed significantly depending on role in Extension.

4. The perception concerning evaluating differed significantly depending on age of respondents.

5. Perception of managing time differed significantly depending on age of respondents.

Role in Extension (County agent, County agent/staff chair, specialist, area agent, on-campus administration) could have a significant impact on how the leadership team designs and implements the leadership training programs. Agents may be concerned about completely different issues concerning "performance" as compared to staff chairs, or university administration. Or, perhaps, younger agents may need a slightly different slant to the "evaluation" curriculum as compared to agents with 20 years of service. These are the kinds of issues the leadership team is dealing with in curriculum design.

The survey found that staff have an average of 10.3 years of service with OSU Extension, and 11.8 years of service with "all" Extension. Average age at last birthday was 42.6.

Table 8 summarizes the response concerning Extension faculty members who have been involved in other leadership training programs.

Table 8. Leadership Training Programs

	Participated		Useful	
	NO	YES	YES	NO
Family Community Leadership	80.2	19.8	95.6	4.4
Extension Winter School	90.3	9.7	100	--
Endeavors for Excellence	89	11	91.7	8.3
Other OSU Extension Leadership Training	67.3	32.7	85.7	14.3
Credit Course Work	59.1	40.9	89.7	10.3

The questionnaire also asked for items particularly useful in leadership training activities. Materials from the Family Community Leadership program were mentioned most often.

Training Proposal

Given the results of the questionnaire, the leadership team submitted a training proposal to Extension administration. In that proposal it was suggested that:

1. Extension's annual conference (1989) have time available to train staff on the first 3 priority topics; building agreement and consensus, developing broad based support, obtaining commitments to action (Use Working With Our Publics materials).

2. Hold at least one institute per year focusing on at least one of the last five topics: maintaining learner interest, measuring performance, evaluating, managing conflict and stress, and managing time. The first institute would be no later than February 1990, and annually thereafter.

3. New staff training be focused in-part on leadership development. Leadership team felt that faculty came to Extension with good subject matter, but with less formalized training in leadership skills.

4. Attendance at leadership training activities, with the exception of new staff training, would be voluntary.

Administrative Response

Extension administration preferred the institute approach to our training model. They encouraged the leadership team to prepare a budget and a detailed plan for the suggested training. They did raise some important questions in the review process concerning training models.

1. How does the annual conference approach fit in with plans already underway through the annual conference committee?

2. Would it be best to wait on the new staff orientation approach until we have the staff development officer on-board?

3. What would be required in terms of budget?

4. Has the leadership team developed a detailed plan for the suggested training?

OSU Extension's integrated approach to leadership training has a way to go, but the foundation has been laid. The information gathered in the survey, and the team planning sessions provide a basis for future planning and will be most helpful in meeting the leadership training needs of Extension faculty members.

SELF-INTEREST AND VOLUNTEERISM: ANALYSIS OF A STATEWIDE ASSOCIATION

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INTRODUCTION

Volunteerism in the United States has a long and rich history. Over 150 years ago Alexis de Tocqueville in his travels of the United States noted the extent of volunteer efforts by the American people. More recently President Bush in his presidential campaign defined his often quoted 'thousand points of light' as "that vast galaxy of people and institutions working together to solve problems in their own backyards" (Newsweek, July 1989). President Bush was defining in part volunteerism and the volunteer network and spirit of the United States.

However, despite these impressions of a high degree of volunteerism, the surprising fact is that a majority of Americans are not volunteers. Hyman and Wright (1971) in a national study estimated that about 40 percent of the population engage in volunteer activities in a given year. In a later study of older persons it was found that only 33 percent of the population above 65 engage in volunteer work (The American Association of Retired Persons, 1984). Recently in a 1988 survey of the independent sector by the Gallup Organization, Newsweek reported 45 percent of the people 18 years of age or older volunteered in 1987. The two age groups most active in volunteering were the 65-74 age group and the 45-54 age group. The total annual value of their effort was estimated to be $150 billion.

Despite these findings, volunteerism continues to be a central thread in the fabric of American society (Wilson, 1976). Today volunteer groups can be found at all levels, from neighborhood associations to national organizations.

These volunteer groups are active in all societal institutions including religion, economy, family and education.

Working with voluntary associations and volunteers is a daily fact of life for Cooperative Extension Service agents. They work with volunteers in the 4-H program through 4-H advisers, agricultural commodity committees, home economics clubs and community development interest groups. This experience has led many Extension agents to realize that volunteer organizations and projects sometimes succeed and sometimes fail. The question is: what factors are related to success or failure?

One basic factor related to the success of any volunteer effort is the recruitment of volunteer workers. People do not volunteer unless they are motivated (Wilson, 1976; Newsweek, 1989). However, motivations for joining volunteer groups vary from person to person and from project to project. Research on volunteer motivations identifies several types, both altruistic and practical (Frank, 1958; ACTION, 1975; Wilson, 1976; Newsweek, 1989). Some volunteer to "help others" or to "do something useful" (Wilson, 1976; Newsweek, 1989). Some may join for "prestige," "recognition," and the desire to improve "social and business contacts" (Wilson, 1976). "Social pressure" also explains why some people volunteer, such as because their "children are in the program," or because their "friends urged them to join" (Booth and Babchuk, 1969; Kreps and Donnermeyer, 1987). Still others are motivated by specific interests which the organization represents or by services provided through membership in the volunteer association (Phillips and Passewitz, 1978).

All volunteer organizations, from the neighborhood to the national level, are concerned to some degree with the delivery of services to their members and with the representation of their interests. While individual perceptions may vary greatly, if a member fails to perceive benefits gained from the organization, volunteer participation declines and the organization atrophies.

Understanding the dynamics of volunteer groups and their behavior is essential to the work of Extension agents because many work extensively with volunteers. The purpose of this paper is to examine voluntaristic behavior in relation to the formation of a service oriented association, The Ohio Maple Producers Associations. The paper derives hypotheses about participation based on a model of economic and social self-interest in the organization. The results are discussed relative to their implications for Cooperative Extension Service agents working with volunteer organizations.

SELF-INTEREST AND VOLUNTEER BEHAVIOR

Volunteering is normally defined as an act in which a person offers his/her services without pay (Smith, 1975). There are different levels of volunteering. At the minimum, a volunteer is one who pays a sum of money for membership in a volunteer group. This type of volunteer joined because of possible services and benefits from membership. On the other extreme is the volunteer who donates large sums of money or many hours of uncompensated time to the volunteer organization.

The experienced Extension agent knows better than to believe that volunteer motivations are primarily and solely "altruistic." Research shows that altruism is rarely sufficient by itself to sustain motivation for joining and remaining involved in voluntary associations (Smith, 1975; Wilson, 1976). In regard to volunteer groups whose primary purpose is the provision of services, members must be in a position to perceive some type of return. Whether the volunteer group is local or national in scope, research indicates that those who join and are willing to work for a service organization are those most likely to perceive benefits or gain. (Acton, 1978; Smith, 1975; Wilson, 1976).

The research for this article was initiated as the result of a request to a state level Extension specialist for assistance from a group of maple syrup producers. The producers were interested in forming a statewide association to represent their interests. The questions they had were: Would enough producers be interested in helping to form an association? Would enough producers be willing to hold office in the association? Would enough producers actually join and pay membership dues to the association?

Based on volunteer literature, a relationship was expected between willingness to join the maple syrup producers association and to work toward its organizational goals, and the self-interest of producers. The over-riding hypothesis of this paper is that WILLINGNESS TO VOLUNTEER IS DIRECTLY RELATED TO CHARACTERISTICS OF ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL SELF-INTEREST AMONG PRODUCERS. This leads to several specific hypotheses about economic self-interest: 1) Longevity in maple syrup production--Longer term producers are more likely to volunteer for the maple syrup producers association than shorter term producers; 2) Number of family members involved in production--Producers with more family members involved are more likely to volunteer; 3) Number of hired employees--Producers with hired employees are more likely to volunteer; 4) Number of maple tree taps as an indicator of the size of the business--Producers with more taps are more likely to volunteer;

and 5) Changes in the number of taps--Producers who are expanding the size of their maple syrup operation are more likely to volunteer.

Two additional hypotheses about social factors and self-interest are proposed for this paper. The first concerns the impact of Cooperative Extension Service outreach programs on willingness to volunteer, and the second concerns the importance of subcultural differences. Literature on volunteerism (Smith, 1975) and the diffusion of innovations (Rogers, 1984) indicate exposure to an idea often leads to later participation. Exposure may come from many sources, but the primary sources are interpersonal (such as friends and change agents) and mass media such as radio, magazines and television (Rogers, 1984). Extension outreach programs have been conducted over the years prior to the initiation of the movement to form a statewide maple syrup producers' association. These programs dealt with methods of increasing production and marketing the product, which are issues of direct self-interest to maple syrup producers. Therefore, as an extrapolation of the main hypothesis of this paper, it is expected that 6) Producers who have attended Extension outreach programs on maple syrup production are more likely to volunteer for the maple syrup producers' association.

A number of the maple syrup producers were Amish. The Amish are a unique religious and ethnic subculture in rural American society (Rogers, et. al., 1988). One of the major tenets of the Amish lifestyle is to lead a "simple life," which means not "to be of this world" (Hostetler, 1968). Under the strong cultural guidelines expressed by these religious tenets, it is expected that 7) Amish maple syrup producers, regardless of their self-interest, will be less willing to volunteer for the maple syrup producers' association than non-Amish producers. To actively volunteer for a statewide association would be to become part of "this world," and subject to severe sanction from fellow Amishmen, such as shunning (Rogers et. al., 1988).

DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

The opportunity for this study began in the summer of 1986. In July, a program planning committee met, representing Ohio Cooperative Extension Service personnel from the county, district, and state staff. Out of the committee discussion, several suggestions were proposed involving the need for more information on the size of the maple syrup industry in Ohio and the extent of interest in a state association.

The committee decided a mail survey was the best method to obtain information about producers. The sampling frame was developed using the

current mailing list of producers from Extension agents in major maple syrup producing counties, as well as mailing lists of service foresters in the state Division of Forestry. This represented the best available list of maple syrup producers in the state. The sample size after eliminating known duplications and non-producers was 334.

In September, the questionnaire with a cover letter and a postage paid return envelope was mailed to each person in the sampling frame. One month following the initial mailing, a second letter and questionnaire was sent to those who had not responded. Six weeks later, there was a return rate of 70 percent (N = 233).[1]

Of the remaining non-respondents, 38 were randomly selected for a follow-up interview. Thirty-six were contacted by telephone or personal interview. An analysis comparing respondents to non-respondents found no statistically significant differences on selected variables representing the size of the maple syrup operation.

SURVEY RESULTS

Profile of Producers

A profile of maple syrup producers indicates most producers (57.4%) have been in the business for 11 or more years, although over one in five are relative newcomers. Maple syrup production tends to be a family operated enterprise. About one-third (32.1%) of the production units involved only one or two family members (including the respondent to the survey). The remainder included three or more members. In contrast, a minority of the operations (23.2%) had paid employees.

The size of a maple syrup operation can range from a few maple tree taps to several thousand. More tree taps means more maple syrup can be produced. Almost 40 percent (39.5%) of the producers have less than 500 taps. Nearly one-third (31.8%) have between 500 and 1,000 taps, and the remainder have more than 1,000 taps. Between 1984 and 1986 over 40 percent of the operations expanded, but about one in five (21.5%) operations experienced a decrease in the number of taps. Over 62 percent of the producers in the study had attended a Cooperative Extension Service program on maple syrup production. Among current producers, 15 percent were Amish.

Willingness to Volunteer

Concerning willingness to volunteer, out of the 233 producers, 174 (161 non-Amish, 13 Amish) were interested in joining a statewide maple syrup producers association (74.7%). However, far fewer were interested in more active volunteer roles. Willingness to serve on a committee to draft bylaws for establishment of a statewide association was limited to 17.6 percent of the producers. Willingness to be a candidate for the board of directors of a statewide maple syrup producers association was expressed by only 21 percent of the producers.

The results are similar to findings from the nationwide studies of volunteerism (Hyman and Wright, 1971; Curtis, 1971). Joining an association is a relatively passive volunteer act. Hence, it is something that most persons are likely to do. Serving on committees and boards of directors are more active forms of volunteerism and inevitably a much smaller group of persons are likely to step forward.

Amish and Non-Amish Differences

Amish/non-Amish differences in willingness to volunteer should be noted. Chi-square is reported in order to show where differences are statistically significant. Either Phi (for 2 row by 2 column comparisons) or Cramer's V (for comparisons with 3 or more rows and/or columns) are used to indicate the strength of association between the variables. Both Phi and Cramer's V are calculated from the chi-square value and control for variations in table totals (Bohrnstedt and Knoke, 1985).

For all three measures of volunteerism, there were statistically significant differences between the Amish and the non-Amish producers. In each case, as hypothesized, the Amish were less likely to express a willingness to become involved in a maple syrup producers association. Less than 40 percent (37.1%) of the Amish were interested in information about the association, compared to over 80 percent (81.3%) of the non-Amish producers (Chi square = 28.40, d.f. = 1, $p < .001$, Phi = .36). Only one Amish producer was willing to serve on a state-wide committee to draft bylaws for an association (Chi square = 5.03, d.f. = 1, $p < .025$, Phi = .16), and no Amish were willing to serve on the board of directors of the association (Chi square = 9.53, d.f. = 1, $p < .001$, Phi = .22).

The theme of this paper is, self-interest leads to a greater willingness to volunteer. However, this was amended for the Amish sub-sample, where it was hypothesized that the strength of their cultural norms against involvement in

the non-Amish world would supercede their economic self-interest. The Amish and non-Amish producers were compared on each of the independent variables.

There were no statistically significant chi-square values among the Amish sub-sample on interest in a statewide association. The number of years producing maple syrup, number of family members involved, number of hired employees, number of tree taps, change in tree taps and participation in Cooperative Extension Service programs did not change the general unwillingness of the Amish producers to become involved in a statewide association. This indicates that hypothesis 7 was correct, that is, regardless of possible self-interest in the association, the Amish culture serves as a strong constraint to participation.

Among the non-Amish, only one producer characteristic was statistically significant (Chi square = 7.35, d.f. = 2, $p < .0254$, Cramer's V = .21). Change in the number of maple tree taps (1984 to 1986) was related to interest in the association. Ninety-three percent of the those who had increased the size of their operation were interested, compared to between 76 percent and 79 percent of those who experienced no change or a decrease in size. This finding supports the fifth hypothesis.

It is not surprising that self-interest characteristics were not related to interest in a statewide association. Eighty-one percent of the non-Amish had expressed interest in a statewide association, leaving little room for variation in interest by various producer characteristics. However, when it comes to more active participation, economic and social self-interest are related.

Three out of the six independent variables were significantly related to willingness to serve on a committee to draft bylaws for a statewide association. The first was number of family members involved (Chi square = 6.52, d.f. = 2, $p < .0383$, Cramer's V = .19). Those producers with more family members involved were more likely to express an interest in serving on the committee. This confirms the second hypothesis.

The second characteristic was number of maple tree taps (Chi square = 11.57, d.f. = 2, $p < .0031$, Cramer's V = .24). Producers with 500-1,000 taps and producers with 1,001 and more taps were much more likely to express a willingness to serve on a bylaws committee. This finding supports the fourth hypothesis. Finally, participation in Extension educational programs on maple syrup production was related (Chi square = 9.0, d.f. = 1, $p < .0027$, Phi = .23). Those who had participated in these programs were over 4 times more likely to be willing to serve on a bylaws committee. This supports the sixth

hypothesis which proposed that self-interest is more than pure economics, and should include the importance of social factors, such as communication channels.

Concerning the relationship between self-interest and willingness to be a candidate for the Board of Directors of an association, two of the six variables were significantly related, including number of maple tree taps (Chi square = 7.91, d.f. = 2, $p < .0192$, Cramer's V = .20) and participation in Cooperative Extension Service programs (Chi square = 9.4, d.f. = 1, $p < .0022$, Phi = .23). Producers with more tree taps were more willing to serve on the board of directors. This again confirms the fourth hypothesis and is a very significant finding because the number of taps was earlier identified as the most important indicator of economic self-interest in a producers' association. The other relationship indicated that those willing to serve on the board of directors had greater participation in Extension programs. This reconfirms the sixth hypothesis and again illustrates the importance of communication channels to volunteerism.

There were three other characteristics marginally (but not significantly) related to expressed interest in the board of directors. These included years producing maple syrup (Chi square = 3.38, d.f. = 1, $p < .0662$, Phi = .14), number of paid employees (Chi square = 6.04, d.f. = 3, $p < .1096$, Cramer's V = .18), and change in the number of maple tree taps (Chi square = 4.72, d.f. = 2, $p < .0945$, Cramer's V = .16).

POST-SURVEY RESULTS

Preliminary results of the survey were shared with a steering committee to draft bylaws for founding of a statewide maple syrup producers association in the fall of 1986. The high level of interest (74.4%) in an association was extremely encouraging to the committee. The committee proceeded with the drafting of bylaws, and on December 12, 1986, formally established a statewide maple syrup producers association. Dues were set at $10 annually. A board of directors was elected and plans for a newsletter, annual meeting and seminars on production and marketing were formulated.

The formation of the association and its organizational goals and benefits were announced at two Extension sponsored programs regularly held during the winter season for maple syrup producers from around the state. By the end of July, 1987, the association membership was 101. Of these, 72 (71 percent) were included in the survey as current producers. Among the remaining 29 members, nine are Extension personnel, former producers or vendors. The other 20 are

current producers who were not part of the original sampling frame, but became aware of the association after its formation.

None of the current members of the association are Amish despite 37.1 percent who expressed interest in an association. This again illustrates the strength of the Amish culture in constraining contacts with the non-Amish community.

Of the 72 current association members who were included in the survey, 66 had expressed interest in the association, and six had not. A total of 161 non-Amish producers on the survey had expressed an interest in joining an association. This means that 41 percent (66/161) have actually followed through and joined the association. Of the 37 non-Amish who were not interested in an association, six (16 percent) joined anyway.

There were eight members on the bylaws committee. Five of these were members who responded to the survey and had indicated their willingness to serve on the committee. The remaining three members had initially said no. However, subsequent to the survey, all three were extended personal invitations to be members of the committee. Among the board of directors, six had expressed a willingness to serve based on their responses to the survey. The other member had initially said no, but later changed his mind because a number of other producers asked him to run. Service to both the bylaws committee and the board of directors illustrates the value of interpersonal communications on volunteerism. The four cases of early reluctance changed due to the influence of friends and peers.

A comparison of characteristics of those who actually joined the statewide association and answered the survey (N = 66) with those who expressed an interest in the association, but have yet to join (N = 95), was completed. The results support the original thesis of this paper, that both economic and social self-interest are important predictors of volunteerism. The two groups were compared on each of the characteristics reported in Tables 4 and 5, and chi-square tests were calculated. There were no statistically significant differences for three of the characteristics, including number of years producing maple syrup, number of family members involved and participation in cooperative extension service programs.

There were statistically significant differences for the other three characteristics. These were the number of hired employees (chi-square = 4.14, d.f. = 1, $< .05$), the number of maple tree taps (chi-square = 21.38, d.f. = 2, $< .001$) and changes in the number of maple tree taps (chi-square = 6.99, d.f. = 2, $< .05$). Those with paid employees, with larger number of taps and who had

increased their number of taps were more likely to have followed through and joined the statewide association. These results lend further support to the role of self-interest.

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, five of the seven hypotheses were supported by results of the survey or from the post-survey analysis. The results of this study clarify the importance of economic and social self-interest on volunteerism. Those with larger operations, who are expanding their operations and who attend Extension programs are more likely to support and take an active role in a producers' association.

The Amish were far less likely to express interest in an association. This illustrates that in any setting where proposals for voluntary organizations are being considered, social class, ethnic, religious and other social and cultural factors are important determiners of active involvement. In most other settings, social and cultural differences may be just as important but more difficult for the Extension agent to identify.

The results of the analysis among non-Amish producers illustrates how economic and social dimensions can determine levels of volunteer support. Specifically, those with the greatest stake in the maple syrup industry tend to have the greatest involvement and interest in volunteering for the association. The same can be said for volunteerism in other settings, whether at the local, state or national levels. Cooperative Extension Service agents should be cognizant of the relationship between willingness to be involved and the direct economic and social benefits derived from actual involvement. Too often volunteer efforts are not brought to fruition because the organizers fail to identify and understand motivations, be they economic, social or otherwise.

One technique for understanding the linkage between volunteer participation and motivation is the survey, as demonstrated by its role in the formation of the maple syrup producers' association. The survey represents an efficient tool for soliciting the views and opinions of many individuals and of determining their potential interest in starting and working for a volunteer organization.

The survey, however, is not the only technique available to the Extension agent. Another option is the use of a program planning committee. A planning committee provides a forum for the in-depth discussion of issues and problems related to the development of a volunteer organization. The committee can

anticipate potential problems and plan appropriate strategies. A planning committee can also include members who are influential (i.e., legitimizers) among their peers and friends, and members who are potential volunteers and supporters of the organization.

In many instances, a problem or crisis will stimulate the idea and action for the founding of a volunteer organization. For example, the sudden drop in price or a dramatic increase in costs of production have created numerous voluntary associations, such as farmer cooperatives and commodity associations. Many times a community problem reaches crisis proportion which may result in the formation of civic, neighborhood or political organizations. Often a group working in the same field or occupation will recognize their common interests and the need for communicating about common issues and concerns, and will form a voluntary association.

De Tocqueville's comments in the early 1800's were correct in describing volunteerism as the central thread in the fabric of American society. However, Extension agents cannot afford to assume that the formation of voluntary associations happens automatically. Understanding economic and social factors related to volunteerism is essential to the successful planning of voluntary associations.

FOOTNOTE PAGE

[1] Operationalization of Major Variables is as follows: The dependent variable indicating willingness to volunteer for a statewide maple syrup producers association was operationalized by a series of three questions: 1) "Are you interested in information about a statewide maple organization?"; 2) "Would you be interested in being on a statewide committee to help draft the bylaws of a state organization?"; and, 3) "Would you be interested in being a candidate to serve on a board of directors representing your geographic section of the state?" The response for each question was either "yes" or "no".

Each of the independent variables corresponding to the seven hypotheses stipulated above represent indicators of special interest in the benefits of a statewide maple syrup producers association.

1. Years of producing maple syrup--this variable was broken down into four categories: 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-30 years, and 31 or more years. The median years of producing maple syrup was 12.75 years.

2. Number of family members involved in production--this variable was divided into three categories: 1-2 members, 3-4 members, and 5 or more members.

3. Number of paid employees (non-family) involved in production--this variable includes only two categories: no hired employees and one or more hired employees.

4. Total number of maple syrup tree taps in 1986--this variable was the single most important indicator of the size of the maple syrup operation and was used initially to screen respondents as current producers for this study. Current producers were divided into three categories: 1-499 taps,500-1000 taps, and 1001 or more taps. The median number of taps for current producers was 600.

5. Change in the number of tree taps--in order to measure the expansion or reduction of a maple syrup producing operation, the change in the number of taps between 1984 and 1986 was calculated. This was categorized into three groups: decrease, no change, and increase.

6. Participation in Cooperative Extension Service programs on maple syrup production--respondents were asked to answer "yes" or "no" to their attendance at these meetings.

7. Amish/non-Amish--Of the 233 current producers, 15 percent were Amish. The Amish were identified through personal testimony of county Cooperative Extension Service agents and local maple syrup vendors. The results of the non-respondent follow-up survey indicated that the rate of return on the original survey was nearly the same for both Amish and non-Amish producers.

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WHO IS INTERESTED IN LEARNING MORE ABOUT LEADERSHIP SKILLS?

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I am somewhat out of my league at this particular conference and for that reason am not including a review of literature in this paper. I am a program development and evaluation specialist rather than a specialist in leadership. The information I am sharing is a small part of a larger study. But the information seems relevant to your interests.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study was developed jointly for Extension Homemakers and Extension Home Economists and was overseen by a committee representing both groups. It's basic purpose was to identify the extent to which Wisconsin men and women are interested in taking part in Extension Homemakers. One of the Extension Homemaker oversight committee members asked that we explore interest in leadership development in addition to interest in family living education. The study also asked about interest in serving as a volunteer. This paper looks specifically at the data on leadership and volunteering.

DATA SOURCE

Three data sets were developed. One included telephone interviews done by professional interviewers with a random state sample of 75 men and 103 women. The third included telephone or face-to-face interviews with 963 women conducted as a selected sample by Extension Homemakers in 54 Wisconsin counties.

The findings from the statewide random sample gives a comparison of the interest of men and women. The findings from the Extension Homemaker conducted interviews permits a comparison of women's interest in leadership on a variety of characteristics.

Leadership skills were not defined in the interview. It was given as a topic for learning and, like the other items, was left to the respondents interpretation.

The study does not relate to any particular theory of leadership. The total framework of the study was developed around three or four areas--interest in learning about a variety of subjects, interest in six methods as means of securing information, and knowledge of Extension Homemakers and leadership was one item in the first component.

FINDINGS

Respondent Profile

The women in the random statewide sample and those selected by Extension Homemakers were very similar with the exception that those from the random sample were much more likely to live in a city and those selected by homemakers were much more likely to live on the farm or in the open country.

The major characteristics of the three data sets are as follows:

Statewide random sample of men: total number of interviews, 75; 8% farm, 17% rural non farm, 15% village, 32% city of 50,000 or less, 28% city over 50,000; 19% under 30, 43% 30-45; 24% 46-65; 14% over 65; 21% one adult households; 68% two adult households; 10% three or more adults; no children, 64%; one child, 12%; three or more 24%; 75% were employed full time, 7% part time, 19% not employed, among the employed 17% were working on a farm or family business, and 4% worked at home for money; all except 29% of the men were active in at least one club or other activity which met on a regular basis, 26% were involved with three or more such groups; 53% were active in community activity although only 20% said they were quite or very active; 70% said they were active in a church although only 25% said they were quite or very active; 9% had not completed high school; 43% had completed high school but not gone any further; 17% had some college; 30% were college graduates; all except 20% said they at least looked at a home or family magazine each month, 27% said they looked at four or more.

Statewide random sample women: total number of interviews, 103; 8% lived on farms, 20% rural non farm, 12% village, 30% city of less than 50,000, 31% city of more than 50,000; 17% under 30; 40% 30-45; 21% 46-65; 21% over 65; 26% were the only adult in the household, 57% two adults, 17% three or more adults; 63% reported no children in the home; 26% indicated two or more children; 35%

were employed full time, 19% part time, and 44% were not employed, 12% worked on the farm or in a family business, 10% worked for money at home; 44% did not take part in any club or activity which met regularly, 23% took part in three or more such groups; 58% said they were not active in their community, 15% said they were quite or very active; 38% said they were not active in a church, 35% said they were quite or very active; 13% had not completed high school, 34% high school only, 28% some college and 19% were college graduates; 93% said they at least looked at a home and family magazine each month, 35% said they looked at four or more.

Sample selected by Extension Homemakers: 963 interviews from 54 counties; 26% farm, 34% rural non farm, 11% village; 21% city under 50,000; 5% city over 50,000; 9% one adult in the household; 69% two adults; 22% three or more adults; 43% no children in the household, 19% three or more; 17% under 30, 42% 30-45, 285 46-65, 10% over 65; 28% employed full time, 28% employed part time, 42% not employed, 34% employed in farm or family business, 15% worked at home; 30% were not in any clubs or regular activities, 24% were in three or more; 38% were not active in community activities, 21% were quite or very active; 21% were not active in a church, 41% were quite or very active; 8% had not completed high school; 55% were high school graduates and had not gone further; 21% had some college and 14% had a college degree; 93% said they at least looked at a home or family magazine each month, 54% said they saw four or more.

Degree of Interest in Learning More About Leadership Skills

About a fourth of all three groups of respondents said they would really like to learn more about leadership skills. Slightly more men indicated they would really like to learn than did women. The percentages of the various samples who said they would like to learn more about leadership skills are given below.

Table 1
Interest in Learning About Leadership Skills

	No interest	Questions	Really Learn
Random sample men	36%	40%	24%
Random sample women	40%	38%	22%
Homemaker sample	48%	26%	26%

Each person interviewed was asked whether they had no interest, some questions, or would really like to learn about 11 topics. There was no topic about which half or more said they would really like to learn; about a fifth said they would like to learn about the topic indicated by the fewest people.

Leadership skills was the third most popular topic for men in the random sample. Laws affecting families ranked first, family relationships second. Leadership ranked low for the women in the random sample. Learning more about better family relationships ranked first. Leadership skills also ranked next to last for the Homemaker sample with home decorating ranking first.

Table 2
Percent Indicating They Really Wanted to Learn About Selected Topics (ordered by % of HMK sample)

	Random sample: Men	Random sample: Women	HMK sample
Home decorating	15%	26%	49%
Better consumer	21	33	42
Family relationships	27	37	41
Laws affecting families	28	31	38
Skills used in cooking, sewing	4	16	36
Foods for health	12	22	35
Child/teen development	19	33	34
Family finances	15	23	32
Homemaking trends and issues	4	20	27
Leadership skills	24	22	26
Speaking at meetings	12	16	21

Desire to Learn About Leadership Skills As Related to Selected Demographic Characteristics

The 829 responses of women interviewed by Extension Homemakers provided information on key characteristics. These were examined to see if interest in learning more about leadership skills differed according to demographic characteristics. Age, employment, and education yielded statistically significant chi square tests. Residence and make up of the household did not. However, as one looks at the percentages the visual difference is not great. For example, the range in the percentage wanting to learn about leadership skills was from 19% of those who had not completed high school to 32% of those who had completed college. The range according to age was from 21% of those over 65 to 28% of those 30 to 45 years of age. The range in relation to employment was from 18% of those over 65 and not employed to 33% of those who were employed full time.

It would appear that fairly similar percentages of people are interested in leadership regardless of the main demographic characteristics.

Table 3
Percent of Homemaker Sample With Selected Characteristics
Who Said They Wanted to Learn About Leadership Skills

	% who Really want to learn	Not Interested
Kind of household .1547		
Single adult	27%	55%
Two adults no children	21	53
Three adults no children	28	46
One adult with children	33	48
Two adults with children	26	46
Three adults with children	38	34
Employment .0029		
Full time	33	41
Part time	27	44
Not employed under 65	24	51
Not employed over 65	18	67
Age .0033		
under 30	24	46
30-45	28	41
46-65	27	52
over 65	21	62
Education .0059		
8th-11th grade	19	71
high school grad	18	56
some college	32	39
college degree	24	40
Residence .3041		
farm	26	49
rural	21	48
village	34	44
small city -50,000	23	51
large city over 50,000	33	35

Desire to Learn About Leadership Skills As Related to Activeness

Three measures of activeness were used in the parent study because it was expected that understanding present activeness would help to understand interest in taking part in an Extension Homemaker Club. All three, number of organizations, perceived activeness in the community and perceived activeness in church showed statistically significant chi square tests. However, again there was relatively little difference in the percentages.

Although those who were already active were somewhat more likely to indicate wanting to learn about leadership skills, about one in five of those who said they were inactive showed interest in this topic.

Table 4
Percent of Respondents Wanting to Learn More About Leadership Skills According to Activeness in the Community

	% Who really want to learn	Not interested
Interested Number of clubs/activities participating in .0040		
None	20%	57%
1-2	29	46
3 or more	31	39
Activeness in community activities .0019		
Not active	21%	56%
Somewhat active	28	43
Quite or very active	33	41
Activeness in church activities .0318		
Not active	23%	52%
Somewhat active	29	50
Quite or very active	26	43

Desire to Learn More About Leadership Skills as Related to Willingness to Serve As A Volunteer

Respondents were asked how likely they would be to help others in three ways. All three groups of respondents were more likely to say they would help with a short term project than they were to say that they would receive training and teach a lesson to others, or be the person that others would call

with questions (Master Volunteer concept). However, there was a fairly sizeable percentage in each group who said they were willing to help others in some way. Eight and nine percent look small as percentages. But when you consider that one out of ten randomly drawn men and women would be willing to take training in a subject they were interested in and then teach the lesson to others, this is a fairly significant number.

Table 5
Quite or Very Likely To Serve as a Volunteer

	Random sample: Men	Random sample: Women	HMK sample:
Working on a short term project	24%	27%	23%
Answering questions from others	15	9	11
Giving a lesson to others	8	8	12

Although those who wanted to learn about leadership were more likely to be willing to volunteer to help others, the percentage still was not high. However, only 16% of those who said they wanted to learn about leadership said it was not likely that they would help with a short time project. About half of those who wanted to learn about leadership said it was unlikely that they would take training in order to help others either in the way usually used by Extension Homemakers or the way usually used by Master Volunteer programs.

Table 6
Likeliness of Volunteering as
Related to Interest in Learning About Leadership Skills

	Work on a short term project: Not likely	Work on a short term project: Quite or Very Likely
No interest	44%	15%
Want to learn	16	35

	Take training and answer questions: Not likely	Take training and answer questions: Quite or Very Likely
No interest	70%	7%
Want to learn	47	14

	Take training and teach lesson: Not likely	Take training and teach lesson: Quite or Very Likely
No interest	75%	5%
Want to learn	46	18

Preferred Way of Receiving Information

When asked generally how they would like to receive information, 52% of the women who said they really wanted to learn about leadership skills said it was quite likely they would use a video tape and 52% said it was quite or very likely that they would attend a program in their community. Among this same group, 35% said it was quite or very likely they would join a group. (Note: The method question was not specific to any one topic. As a base of comparison, similar percentages for those saying they really wanted to learn were: Nutrition, 35% would attend a community program, 57% would use videotapes, 30% a group; Public Speaking, 40% community program, 60% videotape, 40% a group.)

Conclusions:

1. Although developing leadership skills did not draw as high a percentage as some of the home and family related topics there was evidence that a substantial percentage of men and women are interested in learning experiences which help them develop leadership skills.

2. A percentage of both men and women are interested in serving as a volunteer to help others secure information related to homes and families. A higher percentage would be willing to work for a short period of time on a project such as improving or establishing a child care center.

3. Both Extension Homemakers and the Cooperative Extension Service should continue an emphasis on leadership development.

In some respects the percentage of respondents who were interested in learning about leadership skills and those willing to volunteer were unexpectedly high. The person who is very interested in leadership may find the percentages lower than they like, but the findings show that there is an audience for programs aimed at helping people understand and improve leadership skills. It may take perseverance to locate that audience, but one should not prejudge who is most likely to respond to such programs.

REFERENCE

Dr. Sara M. Steele, UW-Madison, Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, for the joint Extension Homemaker and Extension Study Committee, 1988.

DEVELOPING EFFECTIVE ADVISORY COUNCILS: ONE STATE'S APPROACH

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Inefficient Extension councils are discouraging to administrators, agents, and members. A cadre of trained and supportive volunteers are a must if Extension programs needing high volunteer involvement and participation are to move forward with the guidance of the agents (Cole). Developing a partnership for program ownership between Extension administration and key volunteers, such as Extension Council members, contributes to strong programs (Snider). Effective councils depend on administration and staff understanding councils from the members' perspective. For example, why Council participants want to be a member; what will keep them involved; and what are the rewards.

Organizational changes provided the opportunity for Extension administration and staff to assess the roles and responsibilities of the state and county Extension Councils and the Extension professionals in Connecticut. Interviews were conducted with council members in 1985 and 1988. The information collected along with supporting literature provided the rationale and opportunity for changing the councils' mode of operating.

Both county and state councils had been discussing and suggesting structural changes for internal problem solving and improving operating effectiveness. It appeared that councils were unable to function beyond a narrow traditional framework for options on programs and activities. For a variety of reasons, including the 'ostrich approach' and 'ignoring with the hope it would go away tactic,' nothing came of the change efforts of administrators or council members. Attempts by administrators to do general training and orientation meetings were poorly attended.

Members felt powerless in their present roles. They wanted to participate in decisions that affected them. Beck and Hillmar describe these members as ones who exhibit dependence on staff, do not assume responsibilities, express anger, and feel overwhelmed.

County Presidents' Study

In 1985, the eight county council presidents and the state president were interviewed by a county administrator, regarding their various leadership roles and training needs for officers and members. Qualitative analysis was used to look for common themes in the recorded conversations. The goals were to look for an agreeable solution to the complex problem and to begin to develop the councils into synergistic teams.

There were three themes expressed by all the interviewees, each related to their council responsibilities. One theme was understanding their role for working with the political systems, specifically understanding the state and CES legislative processes, differentiating Extension Agents and council members roles on lobbying, and understanding unequal distribution of personnel and equipment among counties.

The second theme was related to raising funds for program needs and enhancement. Connecticut does not have county funding. Councils must raise money for programming expenditures not covered by either the state or federal funding. The officers either lacked skills in fund raising or preferred to work in program related activities

The third theme one was members struggling with their job descriptions as volunteer council officers. County council bylaws did not match with administrators and agent expectations.

As a result of these interviews, in January 1986 a statewide committee of council members and one administrator was formed to plan and implement a statewide training program that addressed identified needs. A one day conference was planned called "Tools for Leadership." Participants could choose three workshops from nine offerings.

With only 15 out of 135 council members attending, it was evident that increasing skills through attending workshops on previously identified topics was not a high priority for council members. In the follow up evaluation less than 40% or six attendees responded with specifics on how each was using the information. The data was too limited to make a statement about how the new skills were being used.

Perhaps non attendance was because the original data collected was not interpreted from the members prospective. Decisions were made by the Council leadership and the membership was not committed to the goal. Symptoms were

treated but not the basic causes. It seemed important to make changes and offer other opportunities for addressing the identified concerns. The questions were 'when' and 'how' would the training needs be met.

CES Long Range Planning 1986

In 1986 Connecticut Cooperative Extension System (CES) put a high priority on its ability to adapt to the changing operating climate of the state, region, and nation. The CES Director appointed a committee charged to make a long range plan utilizing strategic planning and long range planning. To avoid the trail and error change method, consultants were hired to guide the planning committee work. The result was the 1987 CES Long Range Planning Report (LRPR) which examined eight facets of the organization.

The LRPR provided survey responses, observations, analysis, and recommendations regarding both county and state Extension Councils. The committee reviewed and made suggestions on the roles, relationships, and effectiveness of county and state Extension Councils. The report recommended "redefining the roles of Extension councils to be compatible with the new CES issue-based program and district structure." The need for a comprehensive volunteer management plan to support staff was further outlined.

The proposed changes from the LRPR were slow in being implemented. Council members were not immune to what was happening to the staff and the organization in general. They were uncertain about the place for councils in the organizations. They had 16 months to go through the various stages exhibited by organizations going through change. Conner and Palmgren describe these members as confused, angry, and blaming. and feeling alienated, hostile and misunderstood.

Council Work 1988

The announced CES organizational changes in 1988 provided the opportunity for council members to work as a team to plan for changes in their organization. CES administration determined that having the Extension Councils adapt to the changing system was very important. A staff person was assigned to review the concerns and strengths with the State Extension Council and the local councils and assist members through the change process.

The charge was:

To help clarify the existing roles and to project future roles based on needs of Extension and the new organization structure.

To seek information on establishing new District Program Councils.

To help define the relationships between the roles of the different Councils.

To establish a Council operating model to help local and state wide leaders become meaningfully involved.

To develop a strategy for moving from the present operating structure to the future one.

To recommend specific training needs for CES Council members.

During the fall/winter 1988-1989 three district meetings were held with the CES Director and Associate Director attending to explain the organizational changes, the impact of these changes on councils, and the role of the staff person assigned to help them determine the changes needed to fit into the total plan.

Over 55% or 60 county council members were interviewed in group settings regarding needs, issues, and opportunities for councils. These meetings took place at council members usual meeting place to encourage maximum participation. The interviewer actively listened to their concerns, facts, and feelings, without judging the responses. A supportive and creative atmosphere was needed for looking to the future. The members first interest was in something happening as a result of the interviews.

Nine common themes were identified regarding council and Extension changes plus the perceived council and member's needs:

- Develop specific roles and responsibilities for the state council apart from the local work.

- Redefine the roles and responsibilities for local councils.

- Look for a way, other than District Councils, to provide local input toward issues and issue programming.

- Improve and increase communication among members, staff, and administration.

- Increase public relations activities as they are critical for fund raising.

- Publish and interpret the current CES mission.

- Provide specifics on budgets - the dollars needed for specific programs, positions vacant, how much is spent for different programs, etc.

- Look more closely at the general volunteer needs.

- Redefine the working relationships among staff and volunteers.

- Provide training opportunities including leadership and orientation.

The 1988 interviews provided two insights into the marginally successful leadership training workshop developed as a result of the 1985 interviews: members had limited involvement in the planning; and, most members believed they are very skilled at doing the jobs required of Extension Council members or they would not have been selected or elected.

The initial six page report was shared with the County presidents and state council officers in early 1989. This 'buy-in' session and the use of increased member involvement in the change process were two positive forces for implementing change.

Members were ready to look at choices and opportunities for their organization. Recommendations were outlined in a report. Council members indicated that the staff member had heard their concerns.

The immediate outcome was the appointment of four committees by the state president to address three of the concerns. The results address superficial symptoms. The state council has a clear charge in it's new bylaws. For county councils a model bylaws clarified the roles of councils at the local level. They are adaptable to each county's unique situation. Issue programming input by councils was kept at the county level since developing a new district layer of volunteers was not acceptable at this time. A three part system for improving the exchange of timely information between council members and administration has been suggested and details are in the planning stage.

Barriers to changes still exist. These include, but are not limited to, the internal and external forces, such as Extension's cultural norms; problem solving barriers such as the results of taking risks; an activity orientation; hanging on to the past; and resistance to change. Identifying specific barriers for concentrating change activities require the willingness and cooperation of all members and staff to move the organization toward the year 2000.

The supportive change environment has empowered members to work on problem solving and use creativity. Getting some basic operating procedures in place has been a positive step toward increasing the effectiveness of Connecticut's Extension Councils. It was less threatening to both parties to work on council effectiveness changes at the same time as Extension was making organizational change.

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EFFECTIVENESS OF NEEDS ASSESSMENT AND ADVISORY COMMITTEE IN PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION OF VOLUNTEERISM IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

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INTRODUCTION

In-service education is a process commonly utilized by organizations, both profit and non-profit, to teach paid and volunteer staff. Through such a process, staff learn new information, skills, and ideas or update themselves in already familiar areas. In-service education can be delivered in a variety of ways, including face-to-face workshops and conferences, teleconferences, independent study packages, and in-house newsletters, to name a few. Often a combination of methods is used. In-service planners choose a delivery method or combination of methods that meets the needs of the targeted learners while effectively teaching the subject matter.

The project discussed in this paper focused on a two-day in-service education conference on the subject of volunteerism held in November, 1988. It was the latest in a tradition of annual statewide home economics in-services, focusing on a different training topic each year. The in-service was sponsored by the home economics program area of the Oklahoma Cooperative Extension

Service (OCES) at Oklahoma State University. The target audience was county Extension home economists and district Extension home economics program specialists.

In the OCES home economics program area, Extension home economics state specialists are responsible for the annual statewide in-service. The specialists, who are also faculty members in the five academic departments of the College of Home Economics, follow a five-year cycle for rotating responsibility for the statewide in-service. For the 1988 annual statewide in-service activity, two home economics specialists in the Department of Home Economics Education and Community Services (HEECS) were responsible for implementing the in-service. A third specialist from that department is a state 4-H program specialist and served on the advisory committee to be described later in this paper.

PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to assess the effectiveness of the use of an advisory committee and needs assessment in the planning and implementation of in-service education on volunteerism and share the findings and recommendations with other in-service education planners. The annual in-service participants are our most demanding and critical participants since attendance for all home economics professionals is required. Positive attitudes and satisfied participants increase the productivity the total system will realize from the in-service.

Within our present OCES home economics program area, the opportunity for presenting statewide in-service education in leadership development and/or home economics education occurs only once every five years. It is critically important to the program in Home Economics Education and Community Services (HEECS) that the in-service be effective and that benefits continue over time.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A review of the literature was conducted to examine the role of the needs assessment and the advisory committee in the development and implementation of in-service education.

Needs Assessment

Many authorities in evaluation such as Witkin (1984) identify the term need in needs assessment as the denotation of a discrepancy or gap between some desired or acceptable condition or state of affairs and the actual or observed or perceived condition or state of affairs. Kaufman (1972, p. 75) defines needs assessment as "a formal analysis that shows and documents the gaps between current results and desired results (ideally concerned with gaps in OUTCOMES), arranges the gaps (NEEDS) in priority order, selects the NEEDS to be resolved". Witkin (1984) cites classification of needs in systems or categories as primary-level (individual) and secondary-level (institutional), internal and external, preparatory (when a product or program is being planned), and retrospective (when the product already exists or the program has been implemented).

Ulschak (1983) indicates a key element of adult learning is that if the learner does not see a purpose or reason for learning, he/she won't learn. "The trainees are 'the bottom line' " (p. 29). The training ultimately succeeds or fails according to how the trainees apply and use the training.

Diagnosing learning needs is an important major step that Knowles (1980) identifies for the adult learning process. Feuer and Geber (1988) raise questions about the andragogy theory of Knowles, however, they stress that Knowles has done a great service to the adult education field by creating a greater sensitivity to the needs and interests of the learner. Galbraith states that the needs assessment can help the facilitators of adult learning in the appropriate selection of topics and materials, which results in more responsive participants.

The review of the needs assessment literature revealed many procedures for the implementation of needs assessment. Brinkerhoff (1987) indicates that needs assessment methods are as varied as other evaluation methods. The choice of the method is determined by the purpose, clientele and stakeholders. Witkin (1984 p.3) states that quantitative methods of needs identification and analysis must be balanced by qualitative procedures that take values into consideration notify that "The process of needs assessment involves a partnership among the three groups--service providers, service receivers, and stakeholders."

The utilization of the needs assessment is important to the success of a program or project. The commitment of the stakeholders to action based on the

needs assessment is critical to the implementation of a targeted program. Witkin (1984) indicates that needs assessments are likely to be utilized when they are built into a program planning cycle.

Advisory Committee

Among other leaders in adult education, Knowles (1980) states that adults value learning that they can put to use immediately in their lives. He notes that adults like to be involved in choosing what they will learn. McLagan (1978) reminds adult educators that adult learners generally want their learning to be problem-centered as opposed to subject-centered--another indication that adults want to learn that which has practical application in their lives.

Ideally, such involvement in shaping the learning as just described includes all the learners of a given learning experience. When planning a one-time short-term event (like the in-service education conference described in this paper), there is often insufficient time during the learning itself to involve all participants extensively in determining what is to be learned. In such instances, a needs assessment conducted in advance of the learning provides guidance to the planners about the learners' needs.

In many respects, an advisory committee (like the one utilized during the in-service described in this paper) is one method of conducting a needs assessment (Boyle, 1981). In such an instance, advisory committee members are selected from the ranks of the learners targeted for the learning. Their characteristics reflect the persons they are to represent. Their input into the planning process is intended to represent the needs of the total group. When an advisory committee is functioning effectively, their influence should be transparent. Cadwalader (1985) finds that there is no significant difference between the advisory committee involvement in the planning process and workshop participants not involved in the planning process with regard to achievement in knowledge and workshop participation.

Boyle (1981) notes that there are two types of advisory or study committees--standing or special. While standing committees function in a continuing manner, the special committee (like the one in this paper) is "selected to do a particular job" (Boyle, 1981, p. 118). He notes that advisory committees" provide for the extensive and in some cases intensive involvement of the members" (p. 118). Boyle states the following possible functions of an advisory committee:

- to collect and analyze data for problem identification
- to identify problems, needs, or resources
- to study identified problems and make decisions on priority problems
- to legitimize the program decisions made by the programmer
- to identify alternative problems or need solutions
- to create an awareness among other people of the priority problems or needs (p. 121).

ADVISORY COMMITTEE FOR THIS PROJECT

The advisory committee selected to work on the in-service with the two home economics state specialists consisted of 10 persons. Two were state specialists--an Extension program specialist for 4-H and youth development and the Assistant Extension Specialist for Special Nutrition Programs (i.e. Expanded Food and Nutrition Education Program). The remaining eight persons included a cross-section of county Extension home economists. The cross-section represented a variety of characteristics of the targeted learners, including the following:

- years of experience with the Cooperative Extension Service
- age
- geographic location within the state
- county size/population
- program area of responsibility (i.e. adult program, youth program, adult and youth program, and EFNEP).

In addition to the above characteristics, emphasis was placed on selecting committee members with educational background in volunteerism and/or education.

The process of working with the advisory committee was accomplished through two committee meetings, a conference call, committee-wide correspondence, and individual telephone calls, correspondence, and meetings. The advisory committee members were selected 11 months prior to the in-service conference and held their first meeting with the two home economics specialists one month later. Prior to the first meeting, committee members were asked to poll informally their county co-workers regarding in-service education needs in the areas of home economics education and leadership development. They were also encouraged to develop their own lists. Through these methods, in combination with brainstorming, committee members collaborated with two specialists to develop the items that would comprise a needs assessment instrument.

Advisory committee members met again with the two specialists five months prior to the November in-service education. At this meeting, they reviewed the tallies of the needs assessment survey and advised the two specialists on a preliminary agenda for the in-service. Committee members also suggested possible speakers and instructors.

Committee advisement continued through the months leading up to the in-service. Communication generally took place through correspondence and individual meetings and telephone calls with the two specialists. At the in-service, committee members were involved in introducing speakers and facilitating sessions.

NEEDS ASSESSMENT FOR THIS PROJECT

Based on the advisory committee recommendations, review of current literature on volunteerism, and suggestions from administration, the needs assessment instrument was developed. A self-report instrument was used. Twenty-eight topics and/or issues on volunteerism were listed. The Extension home economists were requested to rank from 1 (high) to 8 (low) their choices for topics that would best meet their needs in working with volunteers.

Respondents ranked the following topics highest:

* Job descriptions for volunteers
* Extension Homemaker recruitment and retention
* Volunteer recruitment and retention
* 4-H and OCES agreement
* Motivating volunteers
* E.H. and OCES agreement
* Managing a volunteer program with reduced resources
* Visibility for volunteer programs
* Essential volunteer management
* Delegating and coaching--the keys to management success

The two HEECS specialist reviewed the results of the survey. Due to certain staffing situations, the 4-H and E.H. agreement items were eliminated after consulting with the HEECS department head and OCES assistant director for home economics programs. Delegating and coaching were also dropped since Marlene Wilson presented a video conference in September prior to the in-service which included these topics.

PROCESS

Upon reviewing the needs assessment, the following objectives of the in-service education were developed:

As a result of the training on volunteerism, participants will be able to do the following:

1) improve their competence in managing volunteer programs with reduced resources
2) identify trends in volunteerism and manage change in light of those trends
3) increase skills in recruiting, motivating, recognizing, training, and retaining volunteers
4) increase visibility efforts in promoting volunteers and volunteer programs

The in-service agenda and activities were developed to reflect the objectives which were based on the needs assessment. Based on the committee's recommendations, the in-service included a panel of home economists who shared their ideas on volunteer recruitment. Also in two sessions, home economists team taught with specialists.

To assess the effectiveness of the in-service, data was collected on two occasions. The first assessment was a reaction survey given at the conclusion of the two-day in-service. The second was a six-month follow-up survey.

FINDINGS

At the close of the in-service, a reaction survey was given. The 67 responses to the survey indicated that the participants felt the in-service met the objectives and increased their competencies in volunteerism. On a scale of five (high) to one (low), the majority of the responses resulted in a mean of four or above.

Comments included: topics were great; topics were useful in 4-H, home economics, and EFNEP; hard work of the committee was reflected; and great to have ideas from others. Negative comments centered around the location of the in-service and the quality of the food.

A six month follow-up survey was sent to all program participants. The survey asked respondents to indicate their practices related to the volunteer in-service education. Respondents were also requested to indicate their plans to use information in the future.

Items with highest response rate related to use (items two through 12) were:

*85% - used OEHC handbook in working with Extension Homemakers
*60% - increased visibility of county volunteer program
*47% - worked with volunteers to help them promote their program
*45% - trained volunteers for job assignment
625 - # of volunteers trained
75 - # of different jobs

Items with the highest response rate concerning plans in the next program year (items 13-23) were:

*80% - increase visibility of county volunteer program
*60% - train volunteers for job assignment
*60% - use creativity in managing volunteer program
*60% - work with volunteers to help them promote their program
*58% - recognize volunteers using ideas from in-service

The use and/or planned use of topics covered at the in-service indicate the home economists are validating the planning process of in-service. The utilization of materials, knowledge and skills obtained during the in-service gives credence to the conclusion that the advisory committee and the needs assessment were effective planning methods for the adult learning situation.

Item 24 of the survey asked the respondents for their feelings about an advisory committee representing them in planning the next in-service. Seventy-six percent rated the practice as valuable or extremely valuable. This response further supports the premise that peer involvement in planning adult educational experiences is important to the satisfaction of the learner. The climate for learning is positive and the effectiveness of the in-service education is maximized by the utilization of the materials. Eighty-eight percent of the respondents indicated the in-service helped to meet their needs in working with volunteers.

SUMMARY

This study was undertaken to assess the effects of the use of a needs assessment and the involvement of an advisory committee in planning the 1988 Annual Statewide In-service Education.

Since the in-service represented a significant investment in resources, the long term goal was to develop and implement an educational experience which would be used to its fullest potential.

The recommendations are:

1) the use of a peer advisory committee to assist in planning statewide annual in-service results in valid identification of topics and possible resources
2) a needs assessment instrument provides valuable information regarding training needs
3) specialists and administration should provide necessary leadership in determining priority topics.

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THE WISCONSIN COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE LEADERSHIP IMPACT STUDY

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INTRODUCTION

The Wisconsin Cooperative Extension Service (CES) plays a significant educational role in helping community organizations and their leaders accomplish their important work. In fulfilling the Wisconsin Idea and meeting the mission of extending university research to meet community needs, Extension sometimes helps to form new organizations that can channel citizen energies toward solving emerging problems. Examples from the past include organizing 4-H clubs, Extension Homemaker clubs and rural cooperatives. These roles continue today. In recent years Extension has spearheaded efforts to organize agricultural commodity groups and assisted other agencies in the organization of lake district commissions, and economic development, downtown revitalization and other community development groups.

Leadership is a key ingredient in the effectiveness of such community groups and organizations. Their contributions include many hours of organizing and the completion of other tasks which enable the organization to accomplish its goals. Extension has devoted resources to assist these leaders in their development.

The study described in this paper focused on the short-term informal leadership development activities of the four program areas in the Wisconsin CES which include Family Living Programs, 4-H and Youth Development Programs.

Agriculture/Agri-Business Programs and Community, Natural Resource and Economic Development Programs. It did not include the more intensive leadership development programs that have become more prominent in Wisconsin and in other states in recent years (eg. Wisconsin Rural Leadership Program, Wisconsin Family Community Leadership Program and Wisconsin Community Leadership Program).

PURPOSE

A 1987 statewide study conducted by the Wisconsin CES sought to investigate the leadership development of individuals who had recently performed in a leadership position assisted by Cooperative Extension. This paper examines and discusses the findings surrounding five major study objectives: identification of (1) backgrounds, experience and motivation of leaders, (2) changes in leadership skills, attitudes and activities, (3) Extension's influence on changes in leaders, (4) impacts of leadership on leaders, groups and communities, and (5) Cooperative Extension's future leadership development role. Similarities and differences among seven leader groups will be presented: Extension Homemaker Presidents, Forage Council Board Members, Cooperative Directors and Managers, 4-H Executive Officers, 4-H Camp Counselors, Town Board Supervisors and Lake District Commissioners.

PROBLEM

People have joined in organized efforts to meet their own needs and to serve broader community interests throughout America's history. Countless types of organizations contribute to the quality of life. Leadership is a key ingredient in community organizations. Interested and willing members devote long hours and perform many leadership roles which enable the organization to endure and to achieve objectives.

Due to increased demand for innovative social problem solving and the difficulty in attracting talented citizens to leadership positions (Kanter, 1980) there is an increased demand for community leaders (Kellerman, 1984). Understanding the processes of social change is necessary for leadership development and recruitment (Burns, 1978). A deeper awareness of organizations as complex social systems may lead to new commitment to on-going learning for leaders (Miller & Rossing, 1988). This may indicate that there is a need to expand leadership opportunities and increase the pace of organizational learning of leaders and others.

There is indication that organizations are responding to the demand with programs (Rossing and Heasley, 1987). Emphasis in Extension is sometimes placed on providing technical information with leadership development as a secondary goal. In other cases, one finds a blend of process skills and technical skills, but this effort has seldom moved beyond basic organizational skills. In addition, one finds that the research base for leadership development programming is very inadequate (Thullen et al., 1986).

A final concern is directed to Extension staff abilities. Due to professional training in technical disciplines and limited opportunities to acquire social science education, staff "emphasis is on technical and issue oriented education of leaders to the detriment of up-to-date, research-based education in process dimensions" (Miller & Rossing, 1988).

The challenge then is threefold. First, to increase the research base on which community leadership development programming depends; second, to develop a better integration of process skills and technical training related to issues facing communities; and third, to better prepare staff for program development addressing today's societal transition by providing social science training with emphasis on organizational and leadership processes.

STUDY DESIGN

The study design[1] called for conducting a mail survey using a common battery of items across a sample of leaders for each leadership position. It further called for conducting telephone interviews to collect additional information from a sub-sample of persons in each leadership position.

A key component of the study was to identify changes in various dimensions of leadership performance. To accomplish this the respondents were asked to rate (on a 5 point scale) their current performance and then to rate their performance when they entered the leader position. The difference in mean scores forms the basis for leadership changes.

Eight leadership positions were selected for inclusion in the study. This paper discusses information about seven of those positions as described previously (senior citizen leaders are not included due to small sample size). Data collection was carried out between April and June of 1987. The questionnaire was mailed to 344 leaders, of whom 278 responded for an 81% return. The telephone sample totaled 155. A response of 141 yielded a 91% completion rate. The study generated quantitative and qualitative data which were appropriately analyzed, categorized and displayed.

FINDINGS

Backgrounds

The leadership positions selected for the study provide a cross-section of community leadership roles in rural communities. Leaders of some groups are concerned with considering and deciding on matters of law and regulation. Others are closely involved in planning and guiding programs or activities for members and others are concerned about financial efficiency and results. Some of the groups operate according to legally established rules and procedures, others are quite informal.

Generally the leaders included in the study:

1. were relatively active in community organizations (leaders were members of at least two other community or school groups or organizations)
2. were among the more active participants/leaders in their organization
3. had periodic to frequent contact with Extension (90% had moderate amount, or much Extension contact)
4. had above average education for their communities (68% of adults above high school; 20% of adults had completed college or higher graduate degree)
5. exhibited a wide range of occupations (34% farming, 15% professional/technical, 15% manager/official, 9% service/transportation, 10% homemaker), of ages (60% between 30 and 60 years), and of gender (58% male, 42% female) across leader groups, but a fair amount of homogeneity within groups
6. varied widely in their tenure in office across leader groups and within groups (7% had been in the position less than 1.5 years, 42% for 1.5 to 2.5 years, 23% for 3 to 4.5 years, 14% for 5 to 9.5 years, and 12% for over 10 years)
7. found the leadership position to be somewhat, but not greatly, new or different from previous experience (30% indicated the position was very different from previous positions)

Leader's Reasons for Serving

Despite the diversity of leadership positions in the study three main reasons for serving in the position were cited by many leaders: to help or serve others (69%), to accomplish something (53%) and to learn things (47%). These were cited frequently by persons in nearly all of the leader roles. 4-H Camp Counselors were most likely to serve to meet people and make friends (73%). Most Cooperative leaders serve also to "advance their interests" (67%).

Extension's Assistance to Leaders

Study results identified three main forms of Extension assistance: providing information the leader could use in their role (64%), assisting the leader in the ongoing performance of the role (57%), and advising the leader on how to carry out the role (51%). These were common forms of assistance in nearly all of the groups. Camp Counselors (63%), Cooperative leaders (77%), and Town officials (56%) were also likely to have received group instruction related to the leadership role.

Changes in Leaders

The heart of the Leadership Impact Study was the determination of changes in important leadership dimensions experienced by leaders and the determination of Extension's influence on those changes. Changes in three areas will be discussed: leadership skills, leadership attitudes, and community participation. Discussion will center around the identified strengths, growth and needs of leaders[4] for each of the areas in addition to Extension's influence on leader change.

Overall, leadership skills exhibits the highest degree of positive change of all areas for Extension Homemaker presidents, Cooperative leaders and Lake District Commissioners. The greatest growth occurred in the area of leadership attitudes for 4-H counselors, 4-H officers, forage leaders and Town Supervisors. Community participation showed the smallest positive change for every group except forage leaders.

The patterns of ratings varied from one leader group to another. By and large the amount of change and the current ratings of 4-H counselors were high. Current ratings of 4-H officers and Extension Homemaker presidents were more moderate, but they also showed considerable growth. Forage leaders exhibited the lowest current ratings and moderate amounts of leadership development. For

Cooperative leaders the pattern was one of modest current ratings and a combination of exceptional growth in leadership skills combined with only modest change in attitudes and participation. Lake District Commissioners showed moderate to high current ratings but only modest growth. Finally, town officials demonstrated a moderate level of current performance and moderate amounts of growth.

LEADERSHIP SKILLS

Strengths Three groups showed strong current ability in accepting differences in people: Extension Homemaker presidents (4.3), 4-H executive officers (4.0), and 4-H Camp Counselors (4.6). Lake District Commissioners showed strength in communications, decision making and planning skills (4.0). Town Board Supervisors,Cooperative leaders and Forage leaders performed most leadership skills at an acceptable level. They did not reveal special strength in any area.

Major Growth Cooperative leaders showed major growth in 14 of the 20 skills. The area of greatest growth was in decision making. Of the 20 skills, Extension Homemaker presidents showed major growth in 11 with the greatest growth in conducting meetings. Major growth occurred in 6 of the 20 skill areas for 4-H Executive officers with managing conflicts and recruitment showing the greatest growth. Lake District Commissioners showed major growth in three skills, with the greatest growth in identifying needs of members. 4-H Camp Counselors showed major growth in recruitment. Moderate growth was shown in most skill areas for Town Board Supervisors and Forage leaders.

Limited Growth Forage leaders and Lake District Commissioners exhibited limited growth in 6 or more of 20 skills. The area of least growth for Forage leaders was in financial management. For Lake District Commissioners the least growth occurred for motivating others, relating to other groups, task completion and evaluation skills. Town Board Supervisors experienced limited growth for three skills, with relating to other groups identified as the skill with the least growth. Extension Homemaker presidents experienced limited growth in financial management skills, while Cooperative leaders showed limited growth in task completion.

Leadership Development Needs Study data indicated beginning Forage leaders need skill development in 14 of the 20 skills. After serving on the Forage Council ongoing leaders show needs for further development in 16 of the 20 skills. Priority skills for new and veteran forage leaders should include motivating others, recruitment and delegating. In addition beginning leaders need assistance with identifying needs of members.

There is a need for future programming emphasis for beginning Town Board Supervisors in 17 of the 20 skill areas. For ongoing supervisors there is need for future programming emphasis in 12 of the 20 skill areas. It is apparent that creative problem solving should be considered a top priority due to its greatest need for beginning and ongoing supervisors and lower growth rate. In addition, evaluation skills was identified as a need for both beginning and ongoing supervisors.

The study indicated beginning Cooperative leaders need skill building in 19 of the 20 leadership skills. Ongoing Cooperative leaders have continuing leadership skill needs in 14 of the 20 skills. Both beginning and ongoing leaders have a need for the development of skills in motivating others.

Beginning Extension Homemaker presidents showed need for future programming emphasis in 17 of the 20 skill areas. Ongoing presidents showed need in 6 of the 20 skills. Priority needs for both beginning and ongoing presidents included managing conflicts and relating to other groups.

Skill development needs were identified for beginning 4-H executive officers in 14 of the 20 skills and 6 of the 20 skills needed further development for ongoing officers. Both beginning and ongoing officers showed a need for development of recruitment skills and for identifying needs of members.

The study data indicates that there is a need for future programming emphasis for beginning Lake District Commissioners in 5 of 19 skill areas. For ongoing commissioners there is a need for emphasis in 4 of 19 skill areas. A priority need for both beginning and ongoing commissioners includes learning to adjust leadership style to the situation.

Beginning 4-H Camp Counselors showed a need for future development in recruitment skills and conducting meetings. Due to growth in the position ongoing counselors did not show a need for further development in any of these skills.

In summary, Forage leaders had many entering needs and little growth; needs continued during their tenure as leaders. Both Town Supervisors and Cooperative leaders had many entering needs; however, Town Supervisors showed moderate growth. Cooperative leaders showed major growth, yet maintained a continuing need for skill development due to extreme need as beginning leaders. Many entering needs were also identified by Extension Homemaker presidents and

4-H officers and significant growth occurred as they continued the leader role. Finally, Lake District Commissioners and 4-H Camp Counselors were well prepared as they entered the leader role and therefore showed little growth during the term of office.

LEADERSHIP ATTITUDES

Strengths Two leadership attitudes showed the greatest strength among the leader groups. Five of the seven groups showed strength in belief in the worth of their own ideas or feelings: Extension Homemaker presidents (4.2), 4-H executive officers (4.1), 4-H Camp Counselors (4.1), Lake District Commissioners (4.4), and Town Board Supervisors (4.0). In addition, five of the seven groups had a strong attitude toward a willingness to consider different points of view: Extension Homemaker presidents (4.5), 4-H Executive officers (4.3), 4-H Camp Counselors (4.3), Lake District Commissioners (4.2), and Forage leaders (4.1). Cooperative leaders leadership attitudes are positive and moderately strong, but the study showed no special strengths.

Major and Moderate Growth Major growth occurred in 4 of the 5 leadership attitudes for 4-H Camp Counselors with confidence having the greatest average growth. Major growth was also evident in increased confidence for Forage leaders and Extension Homemaker presidents. 4-H executive officers showed major growth in confidence and self-worth as a result of their leadership participation. Lake District Commissioners showed moderate growth in two leadership attitudes: confidence and setting goals for community involvement. Town Board Supervisors experienced moderate growth for all five of the leadership attitudes: confidence, belief in self-worth, setting goals for community involvement, desire to participate in the community, and willingness to consider different points of view. Cooperative leaders showed moderate growth in confidence and belief in self-worth.

Limited growth In three of the leader groups limited growth occurred. Lake District Commissioners and Cooperative leaders experienced limited growth in desire to participate in the community. Limited growth in willingness to consider different view points was exhibited by Forage leaders.

Leadership Development Needs Beginning 4-H Camp Counselors show greatest need for strengthening goal setting and belief in self-worth. Ongoing counselors showed no continuing needs.

The study indicated that beginning 4-H executive officers need to strengthen confidence and setting goals for community participation. This was also the case for beginning and ongoing Cooperative leaders, while ongoing Cooperative leaders also show need for strengthening desire to participate in community.

Setting goals for community participation was a need for beginning and ongoing Extension Homemaker presidents and for beginning and ongoing Forage leaders.

The study data indicated that there is little need for strengthening leadership attitudes for either beginning or ongoing Town Board Supervisors or Lake District Commissioners.

COMMUNITY PARTICIPATION

Strengths - Six of the seven groups identified degree of active participation in organizations as a strength: 4-H Camp Counselors (3.7), 4-H executive officers (3.8), Town Board Supervisors (3.8), Lake District Commissioners (3.8), Extension Homemaker presidents (3.8), and Forage leaders (3.7). Performance of the leader role was identified by five groups as a strength: 4-H Camp Counselors (3.6), 4-H executive officers (3.6), Town Board Supervisors (3.6), Lake District Commissioners (3.8), and Extension Homemaker presidents (3.8). Three groups showed strength in number of organization and group memberships: 4-H Camp Counselors (3.6), 4-H executive officers (3.7), and Town Board Supervisors (3.9). Cooperative leaders participate at slightly above the average level for their communities. No strong areas of participation were reported.

Moderate growth 4-H Camp Counselors experienced moderate growth in all but one area of community participation. Areas included: the performance of leader roles, number of organization/group memberships, and breadth of areas of involvement. Forage leaders showed moderate growth in the degree of active participation and in the breadth of areas of involvement. Moderate growth occurred in one area for Lake District Commissioners, Town Board Supervisors, and 4-H executive officers.

Limited Growth Both Extension Homemaker presidents and Cooperative leaders experienced limited growth in all four areas of community participation. Forage leaders showed limited growth in number of organization and group memberships and performance of leader role.

Leadership Development Needs Beginning and ongoing Cooperative Leaders showed need to expand their community involvement in all four areas with the greatest need to expand the breadth of areas of involvement. Broadening areas of involvement was a single area of need for beginning 4-H executive officers, Forage leaders, 4-H Camp Counselors, and beginning and ongoing Extension Homemaker presidents.

The study indicates that there is little need for strengthening community participation for either beginning or ongoing Town Board Supervisors or Lake District Commissioners.

EXTENSION'S INFLUENCE

Extension's influence on leadership development was consistently rated as more important than that of other organizations. Extension's influence was most important to leaders in the area of leadership skills and least important in affecting changes in their community participation. Experience in the leadership position, however, was rated higher than the direct influence of Extension or other organizations for changes in leadership skills and attitudes. All sources were rated as a greater than moderate influence.

Across all three leadership areas 80-90% of the leaders said that Extension contributed to leadership development in three primary ways: (1) providing and, or encouraging leaders to assume leadership positions and thereby gain valuable leadership experience; (2) providing educational programs and information for leaders; and (3) serving as informal advisors and models for leaders. The remaining 10-20% of the leaders said Extension did not influence their leadership changes.

Marked differences were shown between leader groups with respect to the predominant form of Extension influence on leader changes. The most prevalent Extension influence on leadership changes for each leader group were:

4-H Counselors and Extension Homemaker Presidents: Experience in the Leader Role
4-H Officers: Experience in the Leader Role and the County Agent
Cooperative Leaders: Meetings, Workshops, Convention
Forage Leaders: The County Agent
Lake Commissioners: Meetings, Workshops, Conventions and Extension Information
Town Supervisors: County Agent and Extension Information

Benefits to Leaders, Organizations and Communities

The most common benefit of the leadership experience was increased leadership skill. This benefit was cited most often by leaders in all groups. Other benefits cited frequently included meeting and interacting with people, increased knowledge, learning about and helping the organization, self confidence, helping others, and accomplishment and satisfaction.

Leaders cited a variety of group accomplishments. Leaders in almost all groups reported accomplishing various special projects. Over 70,000 people benefitted from the projects cited for the groups in the study. These projects ranged from water quality studies, to hay auctions to babysitting services to a 4-H ambassador program. At least 10,000 people benefitted from accomplishments in each of five other areas. The prevalence of these other accomplishments varied by the nature of the group.

The incidence of other accomplishments was closely tied to the nature of the leader's group. The most prevalent accomplishments of 4-H camp groups and Extension Homemaker Councils were improved member relations and learning activities. Accomplishments of 4-H executive boards centered on financial gains and organization maintenance. Notable accomplishments of Cooperative Boards included acquiring new equipment, buildings and staff. The chief accomplishment of Forage Councils was conducting educational activities. Town Supervisors cited a wide range of accomplishments with none clearly predominant.

Cooperative Extension's Future Leadership Development Role

An important objective of the study was to provide information to guide future leadership development programming of Wisconsin Cooperative Extension. Most leaders (66%) felt their level of involvement in community groups and projects was about right. Nearly all leaders (95%) however, wished to strengthen their leadership. Over half (54%) wished to do so in more than a few areas.

Across all leader groups 79% indicated Cooperative Extension should be involved in assisting, educating, and/or developing leadership in Wisconsin organizations and communities. Over half of the leaders felt Cooperative Extension should address leadership needs of 4-H, agricultural groups, the general public, Extension Homemakers and other youth groups. Leaders, without exception, selected audiences in their own category as the top group for Extension to serve for leadership development in the future. 4-H was identified as one of the top three priorities by 63% of the leaders.

Leadership Development Methods Educational methods recommended most often were class, workshop, group session (80%); experience in projects or group (65%); printed information, reading materials (63%) and professional advice or consultation (57%). They were frequently recommended by almost all of the leader groups. Several alternative methods were also recommended by leaders with lesser frequency. Three of these latter methods were videotapes (38%), self help/support groups (34%) and radio or television programs (30%). Many Forage leaders (47%) recommended computer programs and 4-H officers (49%) frequently advocated conversations with family, friends and associates.

Aspects of Leadership to Emphasize Half or more of the leaders recommended continued emphasis on leadership skills, leadership attitudes, and community participation opportunities. Half of the forage, cooperative, towns and lakes leaders recommended inclusion of technical information. Town supervisors (50%) also recommended a public policy emphasis.

CONCLUSIONS

The Leadership Impact Study produced a large body of data across a diverse set of respondents. Several major conclusions regarding leadership development and impacts, as well as Extension's role in this process can be drawn.

While this report focuses on common patterns across all leader settings, the differences must be acknowledged and recognized. As a result of the nature and purpose of the organizations, and of the functioning of the leader role, each leader group is unique in its philosophy, needs and program results. Differences across such settings were expecially prominent in some areas, as identified by an asterisk (*).

1. Cooperative Extension contributes to leadership development in three important ways:

    a. Providing and/or encouraging leaders to assume leadership positions and thereby gain valuable leadership experience.
    b. Providing educational programs, advice and information for leaders.
    c. Serving as informal advisors and as models leaders can observe, emulate and/or learn from.

*2. Community leaders served by Extension are all exposed to a similar array of educational approaches. However, emphasis given to different approaches varies widely across different leader groups. Differences in educational approaches are influenced by available expertise and research base of county and state Extension staff and organization needs more than by preferences of leaders.

*3. Leaders in all community groups experienced growth in leadership skills, attitudes and participation. Growth is greatest in leadership skills, yet there is room for further development. There is considerable variation in growth (and entering readiness) across the leader groups.

4. Self-perceived need for leadership growth (as determined by performance ratings) varies across leader groups and over time, eg. when beginning the leader role vs. the present).

5. Cooperative Extension is rated as a more important influence on leadership development of leaders than other organizations. However, it is rated second to the experience in the leader role as a source of growth.

6. Groups and organizations served by leaders accomplish significant benefits for their members and the broader community. The accomplishments vary considerably in line with the different purposes of various community groups.

7. The majority of leaders indicated that Extension should provide Leadership Development programs. Leader's preferences for future leadership education approaches tend to accord with Extension's traditional educational methods. Interest in new methods of leadership education is increasing despite lack of current availability.

   Preferences include:

   a. class, workshop, group session
   b. experience in projects or groups
   c. printed information, reading materials and
   d. professional advice or consultation

PROGRAMMING IMPLICATIONS/QUESTIONS

1. The common battery of skills, attitudes, etc. applied across the different leader positions indicates that there are many common needs and challenges for leaders of community groups.

   Question: How can Extension effectively serve these "common" needs across a diverse array of constituencies?

2. Difference in approaches and results across different program areas and leader settings call for analysis, sharing and collaboration. Each program area can benefit from experiences of others.

   Questions: Are different approaches appropriate according to different leader settings, needs, readiness, etc.? Have program areas fully explored the needs of existing and new leader groups? Have program areas fully explored alternative approaches over traditional approaches to leadership development? Have program areas communicated and shared successful approaches and encouraged use by other program areas? Are program areas willing to explore and adapt effective approaches used in other program areas? Are program areas willing to collaborate with other program areas in the development of leadership program?

3. A primary influence of leader growth for most leaders is the experience in the leader role. Further analysis of this issue is needed according to the different readiness levels of leaders.

   Questions: Would the leadership experience occur without Extension assistance? What are the critical components of this experience to which Extension contributes? How can Extension contribute to learning from experience other than through simply helping leaders acquire the experience?

4. Leaders have shown preference for traditional educational methods although they cite informal, experiential learning (experience in the leader role) as a primary influence on leader development. Most do not recognize the value of new methods.

Questions: What does experience in the leader role offer which may not be available in traditional methods? How can Extension introduce acceptance of new methods and develop awareness of the effects of such methods? Is there potential for combination of traditional and new methods to develop more effective leadership programming?

5. Cooperative Extension nationally is current emphasizing Issues Programming. Leadership is critical to effective understanding and action on community issues. Half of the leader groups requested technical information (issues based) in future leadership education, half did not.

   Question: How can Extension integrate leadership development within issues programming while simultaneously conducting generic leadership development programming across constituencies and issues.

FOOTNOTES

1. For a full report of the study design and findings contact Boyd Rossing, Department of Continuing and Vocational Education, UW-Madison, 225 North Mills Street, Madison, WI 53706.

2. Criteria were established for each leadership dimension. For leadership skills and for leadership attitudes strength = 4.0 and above, major growth = 1.0 and above, limited growth = .5 and below, beginning need = 2.9 and below, ongoing need = 3.5 and below. For community participation strength = 3.6 and above, beginning and ongoing need = 2.9 and below.

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ASSESSING THE IMPACT OF A LEADERSHIP PROGRAM: ANALYSIS OF PRETEST DATA

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Community Leadership is critical to the future growth and development of Georgia. Lack of community leadership has been declared responsible for problems as diverse as the poor rating of the public schools to the worst erosion problem in the history of Georgia. Leaders who have not attempted to find alternatives are not prepared to handle decision making and implementation with regard to their community's opportunitites. Local citizens have demonstrated their desire and willingness to participate in the process of achieving a better community. These people express their need for training in leadership skills. They are aware of issues and want the skills to effectively effect changes that will deal with the issues (Rohs, 1988).

The willingness of the citizens to participate in these community leadership training sessions has been good. However, several studies of participation in voluntary associations (Hyman and Wright, 1971 and 1958) and formal organizations (Agger and Ostrone, 1956) conclude that such participation is not typical of most American people. In rural communities and counties there has been a deficit in leadership and participation due to the limited manpower resources, and this has caused some communities to miss an opportunity for economic expansion in their area.

The leadership program in Georgia is called "Community Leadership: A County Perspective" (CLCP), and is designed to develop and stimulate citizen participation in leadership roles. Some specific objectives of the program include developing basic leadership skills, working with other local leaders, understanding local governmental functions, and identifying major issues and concerns impacting on local communities (Tankersley, 1989).

The CLCP program is a twelve week program implemented to help build and maintain a solid leadership base in a community. The program is being offered to counties throughout Georgia through the request of the extension agent

within that specific county. The twelve class sessions are divided into three units with each unit building on the other. The first unit is taught in class sessions 1-3, and it covers an individual perspective of basic leadership. This first unit includes classes on individual values as well as an overview of leadership. Unit two is presented in classes 4-7 with subjects relating to participatory leadership: a group perspective. Some of the classes in this unit deal with group formation and motivation, group maintenance, and group management. The third unit, Applied Leadership: A Community Perspective, is presented in classes 8-12. These classes cover the community development process along with a needs study of the community to access problems or needs in the participant's community. In addition to the twelve weeks of class sessions most community leadership programs have an opening ceremony and a graduation ceremony to recognize the participants.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to describe selected background characteristics, organizational participation, confidence levels, and political activity of Community Leadership Program participants. Specific objectives of the study were:

1. Describe the organizational participation levels of the CLCP program participants and their relationship to selected background characteristics.

2. Describe the political activity of the participants and their relationship to organizational participation factors.

3. Describe the participant's personal self-concept and its relationship to organizational participation levels.

METHODOLOGY

In determining the participation levels and the factors that may effect participation, a descriptive Ex Post Facto (Correlational Study) design was used to analyze information obtained from participants in the CLCP program.

Study Population

The data for this study was obtained from participants in sixteen counties enrolled in the 1987 Extension Community Leadership Programs in Georgia. These counties include the following: Carroll, Calhoun, Wayne, Catoosa, Dade, Camden, Columbia, Morgan, Sumter, Pulaski, Toombs, Early, Green, Monroe, Upson, and Pierce. The participants in the leadership group were identified by county extension staff with input from local Chamber of Commerce representatives and other city and county organizations. Selection was made on the basis of perceived leadership position and/or activity (i.e., government and organizational office holders and other business and civic leaders) as well as the potential for leadership. Applicants were then asked to submit an application to participate in the Community Leadership Program. A total of 525 individuals participated in the 1987 Leadership Program in these sixteen counties and comprised the sample for this study.

Instrumentation

This descriptive Ex Post Facto (Correlational) Study was concerned with the relationship between various factors that affect participation in local communities. To gain information on various factors a paper/pencil instrument was used in this study to gather information on different aspects of leadership including a participant's self-assessment of his political activity and personal self-concept. Participation in community organizations and background demographic data were also asked for. The instrument in this study was adapted from previous leadership studies using the Chapin and Woodward-Roper Scales. Items from the Chapin Scale were used to measure oganizational participation. This is a Guttmon-type scale with reproductability coefficients in previous research of .92 or .97 (Wooley, 1978). In this instrument there were four components in the scale used to measure different dimensions of participation: (1) membership, (2) attendance, (3) membership on committees, and (4) offices held. Added together these produce a gross measurement organizational participation. The components can also be separated; for example, extent of participation is measured by membership which is simply the number of organizations to which an individual belongs. Intensity of participation can also be separated to give a measure of personal involvement in organizations by simply adding the remaining three components: attendance, membership on committees, and offices held.

Citizen participation and involvement in political activity were measured with items from the Woodward- Roper Scale (Woodward and Roper, 1956). Participants were asked if they had participated in specific political

activities and how often they had contacted specific public officials. In this particular study, political activity, participation, and demographic information were analyzed individually, item by item, rather than on an aggregate or scale basis.

Definition of Variables

Since this study is a correlational study of the factors that affect participation in the participants of the CLCP program, the variables that will be observed are organizational participation, political activity, personal self-concept, and demographic data.

Organizational participation is defined by the following measures: total number of organizations a person belongs to, meetings per year, and the number attended. These measures were used to indicate organizational participation.

Political activity and involvement is measured by voting frequency, number of contacts with political officials, and other political involvement (i.e., working on campaigns and attending political speeches).

Personal self-concept was measured by participant self-assessment of skills, abilities, and knowledge of working with groups and individuals. Nine items comprised the self-concept assessment portion of the instrument.

Demographic data will be defined with the following: age, educational level and length of residence in county, and length of residence in Georgia.

Data Collection and Analysis

The instrument was administered to the CLCP program participants during the first class session. Approximately 75 percent of the instruments were returned, yielding 400 returned surveys. The returned instruments were examined for completeness, entered onto the IBM coding forms, and key punched. Four of the returned instruments were deemed unusable and omitted from the study. Preliminary runs were made to detect errors in coding, key punching, and entries using the Statistical Analysis System Computer Program at the Office of Computer Services facilities of The University of Georgia.

Descriptive statistics of central tendency and variability were computed to summarize the data regarding participation and demographic characteristics. The Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were used to test the statistical hypothesis about relationships between the variables. Statistical significance was determined by using students' t-test scores.

Findings

Organizational Participation Levels, Selected Demographic Factors, Political Activity, and Self-Concept

One objective of this study was to describe the participation levels, demographic background, political activity, and self-concept of the CLCP program participants.

The findings indicated that 53 percent of participants were members of between 1 and 3 organizations. The mean number of organizations belonged to was 2.8. The mean for number of meetings held per year was 47 while the mean for number of meetings attended per year was 38. Forty-four percent of the participants reported that their organizations conducted fewer than 36 meetings per year while 55 percent of the study population attended fewer than 36 meetings per year.The average age of the participants was 43.2. Twenty-two percent of the CLCP participants range between 43 and 49 years of age. Sixty-five percent of the participants were less than 49 years old. The average number of years in the county was 3.3 while 91 percent of the participants had lived in the county between 1 and 6 years. Forty-six percent of the respondents have lived in Georgia over 20 years. The average number of years in Georgia was 21.6. Eighty-three percent of the participants listed high school graduate as their highest level of education completed.

Seventy-four percent of the respondents answered "yes" to whether they had written or called any public official during the last six months. Sixty-six percent of the 268 participants had contacted local officials between 1 and 5 times during the last six months. Seventy-nine percent of 231 respondents had contacted state officials between 1 and 5 times during the same time period. A total of 176 participants had contacted national officials during the last six months.

Forty-six percent of the CLCP participants responded that they had worked for the election of a political candidate. Ninety-two percent of these participants had worked on the local political level.

Under the nine self-assessment measures, the ability to work with other people received the highest percent "very good" rating with 24 percent. The self-assessment measure with the lowest percent "very good" rating was the ability to influence community affairs. Knowledge of state legislative processes received the highest percent of "fair" and "poor" ratings.

Relationship Between Participation and Demographic Background Factors

Table 1 reports the relationships between organizational participation and selected demographic factors. The Table shows the relationship between total number of organizational meetings held per year, meetings attended per year, years in county, years in Georgia, age, and educational levels.

No statistically significant relationships were found between the demographic factors and participation variables.

Table 1

Pearson Product Moment Coefficients for Relationships Between Participation and Demographic Factors

	Participation		
Variable	Total Organizations	Meetings Per Year	Meetings Attended
Years in County	-.02 (N=348)	-.05 (N=334)	-.04 (N=328)
Years in Georgia	.07 (N=351)	-.03 (N=336)	-.00 (N=330)
Age	.07 (N=350)	.00 (N=335)	.05 (N=329)
Educational Level*	-.06 (N=348)	.08 (N=333)	.08 (N=327)

* 1 = No High School; 2 = Some High School; 3 = High School Graduate; 4 = High School and Technical School; 5 = Some College; 6 = College Graduate; 7 = Some Graduate School; 8 = Graduate Degree

These findings are inconsistent with the findings of Bronfenbrenner (1960) as it pertains to educational level being positively correlated with participation. Also, Mayo (1950) indicated that age played a part in the amount of participation where this study did not establish any relationship. Length of residence reported by Scaff (1952) to be a social factor affecting participation levels was not significantly related to years lived in the county in this study.

Relationships Between Participation & Political Activity

The relationship between total number of organizations, meetings held per year, meetings attended per year, written or called public officials, contacted local officials, contacted state officials, contacted national officials, worked for a political candidate, and the political work level are reported in Table 2.

Significant relationships between meetings per year held, meetings attended, and number of contacts made with local officials were found. More specifically, the more meetings held and attended by a participant within a year, the higher the number of contacts made with local officials. This study also found that the total number of organizations a person belonged to was significantly related to "working for the election of a political candidate." This correlation shows that the more organizations a person belonged to the more likely participants reported they had worked for the election of a political candidate.

Table 2
Pearson Product Moment Coefficients for Relationships
Between Participation and Political Activity

	Participation		
Variable	Total Organizations	Meetings Per Year	Meetings Attended
Wrote Public Officials (1=Yes; 2=No)	-.04 (N=348)	-.00 (N=333)	.01 (N=327)
Contacted Local Officials (Number of Contacts)	.10 (N=250)	.18* (N=242)	.18* (N=240)
Contacted State Officials (Number of Contacts)	.03 (N=214)	.11 (N=211)	.05 (N=208)
Contacted Nat'l Officials (Number of Contacts)	-.05 (N=158)	.02 (N=155)	-.04 (N=150)
Worked for Candidates (1=Yes; 2=No)	-.12* (N=343)	.07 (N=328)	.07 (N=323)
Work Level (1=Loc; 2=St; 3=Nat'l)	-.06 (N=145)	.07 (N=142)	.02 (N=141)

*p<.05

These associations are consistent with the findings of Hamans (1961) who views participation as being a cost- benefit type exchange theory. That is, participants feel they are gaining more contacts with local officials and more support for their candidate by belonging to more oganizations with more meetings and attending more of those meetings.

Relationships Between Participation and Self-Concept

Table 3 reports the relationships between total number of organizations, meetings held per year, meetings attended per year, confidence to promote causes, ability to motivate and inspire people, knowledge of resources, ability to make informed decisions, ability to influence community affairs, ability to work with other people, ability to lead, knowledge of state legislative processes, and ability to deal with local leaders.

The findings revealed significant relationships between self-concept items and participation. These findings are consistent with the studies of Neal and Seeman (1964) indications that membership in an organization is not simply a function of socioeconomic status, but that participation is associated with a strong sense of control over events. Other studies by Seeman (1959) were also consistent with this study.

Thus, in this study, participation was associated with a person's self-concept. Specifically, the total number of organizations belonged to is significantly related to a participant's confidence to promote causes, ability to motivate and inspire people, ability to make informed decisions, ability to influence community affairs, ability to work with other people, ability to lead, and knowledge of state legislative processes. Thus, the higher the number of organizations belonged to, the more confident a participant felt in promoting causes, motivating and inspiring people, making informed decisions, influencing community affairs, and working with other people. Also, the higher the number of organizations belonged to, the more confident participants felt in their ability to lead and in their knowledge of state legislative processes.

The study also showed that the number of meetings held per year and the number of meetings attended per year were significantly related to the ability to make informed decisions, to work with other people, to lead, and knowledge of state legislative processes.

Table 3
Pearson Product Moment Coefficients for
Relationships Between Organizational Participation
and Selected Self-Concept Factors

	Participation		
Variable 1	Total Organizations	Meetings Per Year	Meetings Attended
Confidence to Promote Causes	-.16* (N=351)	-.10 (N=336)	-.17* (N=330)
Ability to Motivate & Inspire People	-.15* (N=351)	-.09 (N=336)	-.09 (N=330)
Knowledge of Resources	-.10 (N=350)	-.03 (N=335)	-.06 (N=329)
Ability to Make Informed Decisions	-.14* (N=350)	-.15* (N=335)	-.15* (N=329)
Ability to Influence Community Affairs	-.23* (N=350)	-.07 (N=335)	-.10 (N=329)
Ability to Work With Other People	-.11* (N=351)	-.11* (N=336)	-.13* (N=330)
Ability to Lead	-.09* (N=350)	-.13* (N=335)	-.14* (N=329)
Knowledge of State Legislative Processes	-.14* (N=351)	-.12* (N=336)	-.14* (N=330)
Ability to Deal Local Leaders	-.13 (N=349)	-.10 (N=334)	-.10 (N=328)

1=Very Good; 2=Good; 3=Fair; 4=Poor; 5=Very Poor
* $p < .05$

Finally, the number of meetings attended per year was found to be significantly related to confidence to promote causes. This relationship also indicated that the higher the number of meetings attended per year, the more confident a participant felt about promoting causes.

Conclusions

Based on the data, it was concluded that organizational participation is not associated with the selected background characteristics of age, educational level, length of residence in the county, and years in Georgia within this study. However, it was concluded that organizational participation is associated with certain political activity factors and several self- concept items.

More specifically, the number of meetings held per year and number of meetings attended per year are positively associated with the number of contacts of local officials. Also, the total number of organizations belonged to is negatively associated with working for the election of a political candidate, suggesting that the more oganizations a participant belongs to, the more likely a person will be working for the election of a political candidate.

In addition, negative correlations were found between total number of organizations belonged to and confidence to promote causes, ability to motivate and inspire people, ability to make informed decisions, ability to influence community affairs, ability to work with other people, and knowledge of state legislative processes. Negative associations were also found between number of meetings attended per year with confidence to promote causes. Number of meetings held per year and number of meetings attended per year were negatively correlated to ability to make informed decisions, ability to work with other people, ability to lead, and knowledge of state legislative processes. These negative relationships between the participation variables and the self-concept items suggest that the greater the participation levels, the higher the self-assessment rating.

Further Evaluation

Further evaluation of the Community Leadership program in Georgia is being implemented. A follow-up survey was also administered to program participants to assess changes in their problem solving skills, self- concept, political activity and involvement in local organizations. At this writing this data has not been analyzed. However, local Extension staff members were asked to provide information on how participants, as a result of taking active roles in improving their communities, have made an impact in their community.

Local county Extension staff responded by indicating that Community Leadership participants have:

- Obtained $1.3 million in water/sewer grants.
- Formed committees to address community issues (teenage pregnancy, drug abuse, adult illiteracy, eocnomic development) identified by participants during the 12 classes.
- Conducted countywide needs assessments.
- Published a county economic development guide.
- Accepted leadership roles in a newly organized youth leadership association.
- Helped Board of Education in getting volunteer partners.
- Been selected as first-time candidates to local offices.
- Conducted a county auction to raise funds for a second leadership class.
- Secured radio air time to broadcast an issue forum, developed questions, got panel members, and staffed telephones for call-in questions.
- Developed a mission statement encouraging local officials to involve the leadership class in providing education on critical issues.
- Formed a leadership alumni.
- Hosted countywide forums on local issues such as sales tax referendum, land use, zoning.
- Organized a study group to determine need and support for a Chamber of Commerce.
- Been instrumental in having local Board of Education reinstate a vocational education program.
- Participated in recruiting and hiring a new city manager.

-- Convinced county commissioners to enforce an old law in support of an industrial authority.

-- Supported construction of a speculative building for economic development.

SUMMARY

Extension is operating in an accountability era -- more open to criticism and demands for justification of actions. In this accountability era the public demands assurances that benefits results from the provision of services.

Taxpayers and sponsors want to know that they're getting their money's worth. In trying to balance tight budgets, public officials are forced to make hard choices. To make these decisions, basic information about the benefits of services is needed. Extension must be able to define who and how people are being served and document that programs are achieving positive results.

The list of community leadership accomplishments was only partial. The Extension Community Leadership Program served as a catalyst to develop individuals and improve communities. Such programs play an important part in improving Extension's image and generating grassroots support for Extension (Rohs, 1988).

As one participant commented about the Community Leadership Program, "I've helped build a better life for myself and my community and the Extension Service helped me to do it."

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COMMUNITY/FAMILY LEADERSHIP EDUCATION EVALUATION PROJECT

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INTRODUCTION

An evaluability assessment and a taxonomy of leadership concepts provided a framework for evaluating participant skills and knowledge, and utilizing the information for various decision makers - program leaders, administrators and funders.

A review of literature indicated the need to increase the community leadership pool for community vitality. Community leadership education is a major program priority of Cooperative Extension. Constraints have limited research/extension accountability efforts. Evaluations have been limited and information fragmented. There is a need for coordination and a systematic approach. This regional community leadership evaluation project proposes to move the process from program to evaluation information utilization into action.

LITERATURE REVIEW

A national survey of local government officials for the National Association of Towns and Townships, Center for Small Communities indicated that citizen interest and participation in small-town government seems to have declined. "Whatever the reasons, citizen disinterest in the work of their governments translates directly into three serious problems: One, less understanding and support for public officials when they need it; Two, a drop in the number and contributions of citizen volunteers in such important service areas as fire

protection, park and recreation programs, and advisory boards and commissions; And, Three, fewer candidates for public office."

A reduced leadership pool threatens the vitality and effectiveness of a small community's local government and the quality of life in that community. Are Cooperative Extension's leadership development education programs effective in improving this leadership pool? This is one of the questions we want to answer.

The W. K. Kellogg Foundation has financed four types of leadership programs in the Northeast region: rural leadership, citizen involvement, middle management and family community leadership. These efforts have initiated numerous spin-off programs with similar goals and educational objectives.

The Northeast Regional Center for Rural Development Board of Directors and the research and Extension community in the Northeast have specified community leadership training and development as one of the major program priorities. A national survey by the National Extension Community Leadership Task Force has documented Extension's involvement in community leadership and supports community leadership as a national priority.

A recent conference of Extension and research professionals recommended establishing a methodological "bank" of tried and true techniques for evaluation and to consider regional centers as potential clearinghouse sites. This recommendation was reported by the evaluation and networking task groups in the "Proceedings, Resurgence in Rural America: Mandate for Community Leadership".

Extension and research persons involved in community leadership were identified in the publication, "Community Leadership Development, Implications for Extension." This report provided a national bench mark of information useful in developing this regional evaluation/utilization project.

The paper, "Responses to a Mandate for Community Leadership: the Function of Research," discusses the integration of research and practice and accountability requirements. These accountability requirements have not been established in many states because of budget and staff constraints. Follow-up research on participant knowledge, attitude, and behavioral changes will help us to better predict which types of persons are most likely to gain the most from our programs, given what our programs are designed to accomplish. Literally no progress in the research/practice linkage will occur unless structural impediments are removed. State specialists must be given an opportunity to conduct research.

During the 1980s, the ECOP Subcommittee on Program and Personnel Development recommended a national evaluation system. Accountability and evaluation became a significant component in the program planning process.
The 1987 National Extension Evaluation Conference stated several objectives relevant to this project: to focus on new methods and techniques in evaluation, to consider evaluation in light of new issues and priorities being identified for the Extension system and to utilize the results from county, state (multi-state), and national evaluation studies.

Since the early 70s only limited evaluations of some leadership programs were conducted. In most evaluations, participants were tested for changes in knowledge and attitudes by using a pre-test - post-test system. Others used participants' reports of their experiences. The most systematic evaluation was conducted in Pennsylvania. A similar model was used to evaluate the New England Regional Leadership program and augmented by a telephone survey of selected participants from each state.

Extension evaluation attempts have resulted in fragmented information supplied by counties and states with little semblance of uniformity. Other efforts have been initiated at federal and state levels without satisfying the needs of counties. Lack of coordination and a more systematic approach is needed.

Reporting has been largely ignored in the evaluation literature or at least relegated to cursory treatment. Our attention as evaluators has often been placed on methodology, on statistical procedures, and on other matters of limited interest to lay people.

New England's experience with existing evaluation tools has resulted in a list of potential questions for evaluation research. For example, did participants increase knowledge and skills for: issue analysis, functions and dynamics of groups, community problem-solving, negotiation and conflict management, and consensus building?

A dissemination and utilization study of leadership development by PDEMS (Program Development, Evaluation, Management System, ES-USDA) shows only planned activities. This regional project is to move evaluation, utilization and dissemination to the action step.

This project has ties to the New England Extension Institute for staff development. The project framework/model has direct application for other program priorities. It also has application to the national project "Education

for Public Decisions''. Thus, the project model could be used by other regions and/or states throughout the Extension system.

OBJECTIVES

A. Complete an evaluability assessment for community leadership programs in New England, especially the Kellogg- financed programs, which will clarify decision makers' awareness of and interest in community leadership programs regarding: intended accomplishments, program progress, adequacy of resources and needs for evaluative information; and define program's logic and functional aspects with types of evidence - activities and outcomes.

B. Complete the matrix with objectives, leadership concepts, educational materials, evaluation questions, and key response words; test the evaluation questions and prepare computer analysis.

C. Complete model evaluation utilization reports for various decision makers; and

D. Prepare the materials from the above activities for a Northeast Dissemination Workshop on community leadership evaluability assessment, evaluation and utilization.

E. As a result of the Northeast Workshop, three-quarters of the states will utilize the evaluability assessment and/or the leadership evaluation matrix for leadership development education.

F. Results of the project will be shared with the other regional centers, distributed nationally through extension system networks and will be submitted to journals for publication and/or conference presentations.

PROJECT PROCESS

New England Extension Directors were provided with project information and work group recommendations. These recommendations were based on work group composition as defined in the proposal and staff and volunteers from existing lists of leadership and public policy regional programs.

The New England Extension Directors made the appointments of three representatives from their state to form the work groups. The two work groups, Evaluability Assessment and Leadership Taxonomy and Evaluation, worked concurrently with joint sessions to coordinate activities and information. The methodology for each work group is explained in the sections that follow.

The project merges the evaluability assessment process and the taxonomy of leadership development competencies with a matrix for developing, delivering and evaluating leadership education programs. The matrix utilizes leadership concepts, learner objectives, selected educational materials, evaluative questions and key response words for personal leadership, issue analysis and problem solving; group process, public policy process, volunteerism and teaching others.

EVALUABILITY ASSESSMENT

A heightened interest in evaluability assessment at the National Extension Evaluation Workshop (March 1987) led to its inclusion in this project. The process began in the 1970s originally to improve evaluation but has been expanded to include program improvement.

Work Group Methodology

The Basic purpose of this work group was to conduct an evaluability assessment of leadership development education in New England: to ascertain key decision makers interests in an evaluation of the program; to determine variations in the way the program is implemented; to ascertain the implications of these for program improvement, for the design and conduct of a study, and for the aggregation of results; and to use as a guide for program development, implementation and reporting.

The suggested composition of the Work Group with representatives from each New England State (6), includes:

- one State staff representative from each of the following: New England Regional Leadership Program (NERL), Family Community Leadership (FCL), 4-H Middle Management, and Evaluation;

- two field staff representatives from each of the following: New England Regional Leadership Program (NERL), Family Community Leadership (FCL), and Volunteer programs.

Three sub-groups were formed to:

- define community leadership education;
- identify stakeholders
- prepare interview questions for stakeholders

Each state interviewed four (4) in categories A and D, those who provide funds; those who provide data for the evaluation; and three (3) in categories B and C, those who use the results for decisions and those involved in program delivery.

Group members reviewed the unedited responses, prepared a first draft summary of points for the group to review and then a second draft of the most important points was prepared for review and final edit.

Program Definition

Community leadership education is a process that enables individuals to take the necessary risks to apply abilities and learned skills in the public arena. These skills and abilities include, but are not limited to: planning and mobilizing group action, understanding and developing oneself, communicating effectively, analytical skills and understanding various aspects of society and social change.

The beneficiaries of community leadership education might be an organization, an interest group or institution of some level of governmental administration, but the ultimate beneficiary is the community however defined. In the process of community leadership education, the individual is not told or taught what to think or do, but rather how to think and how to do. It is this empowerment and confidence building that makes a critical contribution to public decision making and policy development.

Overview of Community/Family Leadership Programs

The Community Leadership National Extension Task Force indicated that an increasing number of leadership development educational programs exist across the country. In the Northeast, Kellogg-financed leadership programs and other leadership programs are creating "spin-off" programs. In New England four leadership programs were initiated with W. K. Kellogg funding and they are also creating new leadership education models.

Citizen Involvement Training Program (CITP) was a collaborative project of the Division of Continuing Education and Cooperative Extension at the

University of Massachusetts, Amherst. Since 1976, CITP has provided training and consulting to citizens and citizen groups in Massachusetts and around the country.

New England Regional Leadership (NERL) program started in 1982. This program provides an educational setting for citizens to explore community issues and alternatives from a broad socioeconomic perspective and enhances leadership skills for taking active roles in community decision making. The unique characteristic of the program is a blend of issue subject matter; leadership and group process skills and practice/experience aimed at developing leadership abilities.

Family Community Leadership (FCL) program is at various stages of implementation in New England and the Northeast since the Fall of 1986. Family Community Leadership is designed to help meet the challenge of developing leadership to represent families in public decision making. Through education, the program develops the leadership and organizational skills of individuals. This enables them to become more effectively involved in identifying, analyzing, and resolving issues affecting the family and community.

Interview Results

The stakeholder interview process and results provides a wealth of information for future community leadership education programming. A summary of the results indicates:

1. There is a need for community leadership education. This need focuses on the issue of change for communities, leaders, and Extension.

2. Communicating effectively and understanding leadership styles are important components of community leadership education not only as program content but in promoting, funding, and gaining support for the program.

3. There is support for community leadership education internally (Extension) and externally.

4. The "how-to" skills to deal with issues (both process and content) are important to community leadership education.

TAXONOMY AND EVALUATION MATRIX

Leadership education concepts provide a framework for the curriculum and resources necessary to enhance the ability of individuals to influence the ideas and actions of others. This framework forms a matrix with learner objectives, evaluation questions and key responses for reporting back to the stakeholders.

Work Group Methodology

During its first Work Session, the six group members assigned to the taxonomy and evaluation matrix met for the purpose of drafting learner objectives "tied" to the taxonomy in "Community Leadership Development: Implications for Extension," and other Family/Community Leadership educational materials.

Using newsprint, the group brainstormed objectives and questions which would reflect the learner's (1) leadership skill development, (2) teaching abilities of trained volunteers, and (3) impact upon the community as a result of leadership education.

These objectives were condensed and refined into six subject matter areas: Personal Leadership, Issue Analysis and Problem-Solving, Group Process, Public Policy, Volunteerism, and Teaching Others.

Between work sessions, group members worked on refining objectives and evaluation questions. These materials were sent to the work group facilitator for compiling. Members also assisted the Evaluability Work Group by conducting stakeholder interviews.

Objectives were further refined and clarified during Work Session II. The development of relevant, inclusive evaluative questions proved to consume more time than the workshop allowed.

From newsprint, the facilitator completed the second draft, which was mailed to members of both task groups and consultants for corrections, additions, deletions, and comments. This input was incorporated into the evaluative question set. The questions were then returned to the authors for validity testing with a limited number of leaders and leadership education participants of various age levels and programs. These completed questionnaires were returned to the facilitator for refinement.

Finally, all essay questions were excerpted from the set and sent to selected former New England Regional Leadership graduates, Family Community

Leadership contacts, and the consultants for response. From these responses, key words were selected as data input for computer analysis program development.

Further testing generated additional refinements of the final evaluative questions which appear with the report.

Summary and Conclusions

This Community/Family Leadership Taxonomy and Evaluation Matrix can be used whole, or in part, as a complete guide to leadership education program development, implementation and evaluation to a variety of audiences. The matrix is a concept designed to move the educator progressively along a path from onset of idea to action and report back.

Questions were pilot tested for validity and reliability. Questions may need to be reworded for evaluating situations in which leadership/group process "jargon" has not been formally taught, as frequently occurs in the case of youth leadership development.

A sampling of selected educational materials has been included. This is by no means a complete list. Educators may wish to add or develop materials to supplement those listed.

The package can serve as a framework for educational program planning and evaluation in other priority areas. By using an appropriate taxonomy, accessing relevant educational materials, stating learner objectives, developing evaluative questions, and noting key response words for computer analysis, significant data about teaching and learning effectiveness can be aggregated.

Open-ended questions have been assigned sample key response words which can be entered into a computer for analysis of word frequency and percentage, an indication of knowledge, practice or skill change.

Ultimate evaluation exists within the community in which change has been effected by means of an amicable, democratic process.

USING THE MATRIX

The leadership evaluation matrix is a valuable tool to be used when teaching leadership skills, either in a classroom setting or in a less formal on-going education situation. The contents provide an overview of the components important to a leadership education project. This information can

influence the planning of program curriculum and identifying the gaps in programming. Results of the evaluation can be tabulated for information sharing, future program development and reporting back to stakeholders.

Format

The information in this section has been arranged so that for each concept in the taxonomy there are learner objectives, educational materials and evaluative questions horizontally across fold-out pages. Recommended teaching resources have been provided for each objective. Key response words are included for open-end questions and have been used in the development of the computer program.

How to Use This Taxonomy and Evaluation Matrix

The matrix may be used in parts or in its entirety. However, objectives and questions suitable to varying age groups and audiences have been included so that selections appropriate to the specific audience may be made.

Select a teaching concept, choose the objective(s) you wish to teach, then read across the page for choices of educational materials and matching evaluative questions.

Titles of selected educational materials are listed in conjunction with the taxonomy, objectives and evaluative questions. More detailed descriptions of these materials are contained in the bibliography. Users of these materials are invited - encouraged - to supplement them with their own or other authoritative educational references.

OBSERVER EVALUATION

The Leadership Education Evaluation Project provided an occasion to make a pilot study of project participants. The study was of selected characteristics germane to their involvement in the activities of the project, the impact of the project on them, and the project's influence on their future use of leadership education evaluation.

Pilot Research Study

Three sets of characteristics were used. One set was a matrix of six variables pertinent as bases for motivation critical for group activity and stability. Three pertained to each group member: conceptualization,

self-control, and feelings. Three pertained to all group members and relationships among them: identity, mutual control, and status. There matrix positions are:

Conceptualization	Identity
Self-control	Mutual Control
Feelings	Status

The second set of characteristics was a matrix of nine variables associated with individual and group activity and reflecting relationships among people and objects in structured situations. These are identified as guides to action which both derive from and influence people's systematic behavior while functionally related to each other. The variables in their matrix positions are arranged thus:

Expectations	Norm	Intent
Preferences	Priorities	Choice
Attitudes	Values	Commitment

The third set of characteristics involved a participant's self-oriented activity and activity oriented toward others in each of four activities critical for group cohesion and operation. These four were mobility (movement), transportation, communication, and exchange. They do not constitute a matrix.

In addition, participants were asked specifically about incorporating leadership education evaluation into their program development processes and recommending that others do so.

Changes in Motivational Structure

A change in the motivation of the participants as a group occurred during the course of the project sessions. The data shows that participants entered the project with relatively high motivation for group accomplishment and left it with relatively high motivation for individual accomplishment. In light of the objectives of the project, this kind of change is within the scope of reasonable prediction. Even though absolute positions within the measurement range do not indicate exceedingly high or exceedingly low motivation, the type of change shown is consistent with that which project leaders anticipated as occurring in a successful project.

Guides to Action

Scores for guides to action show a consistent mixture of characteristics. Overall, the combination of intent, choice, and commitment and that of expectations, preferences, and attitudes, were more influential in structuring orientation to participation in the project than was the combination of norms, priorities, and values.

The scored relationships suggest that participants were ready to engage in group activities on the basis of expectations, attitudes, intent, and choice, while they had little structured perspective on either what those activities were to be or how they were to be involved and associated with those activities. The relationships describe a group which is undertaking an unfamiliar task without a high degree of structure in any of the variables which function as guides to action.

Impact

Participants became more adequate in listening to others' comments about relevant information than in talking to others about it. And they would make changes in their own practices (exchange one practice for another) to get the benefits of leadership education evaluation to a greater extent than they would recommend that others make such changes.

These data indicate that an impact of the project was to establish a disposition among participants to use the information they had to make beneficial changes for themselves while listening to others, sharing information with them, and encouraging them to participate in leadership education evaluation projects.

Caveat and Conclusions

These pilot research procedures give results which are consistent with project objectives; important among these is the shift in motivational structure which occurred during the project from group emphasis to individual emphasis. The research procedures have also given results which are internally consistent; the emphasis on characteristics of individual motivation at the end of the project is consistent with projected action in changing practices, listening to others, sharing information with others, and encouraging them to participate in relevant projects. Also consistent with that motivation is expressed emphasis on using leadership education evaluation in program development and on the recommendation to others that they do likewise.

UTILIZATION OF INFORMATION

This project did focus on new methods and techniques in evaluation by merging evaluability assessment with a leadership taxonomy/evaluation matrix. The matrix includes leadership concepts, learner objectives, selected educational materials, evaluative questions and key response words. This model provides opportunities for a systematic approach to evaluation, uniformity in collection of information and data and opportunities for the aggregation and coordination of evaluation information among and between various geographic areas and levels: county, multi-county, state and multi-state programs to the national level.

The model presented does consider evaluation in light of new issues and priorities being identified for the Extension System. This evaluation project model can be adapted to the eight national initiatives which are creating a new agenda for the Cooperative Extension System. One of the most important keys to implementing these initiatives will be community leadership. As a first step, we must understand the dynamics of today's decision making and formulate a vision of the future.

This project model does provide the opportunity to utilize evaluation results from county, state, multi-state and national studies because data can be aggregated in many ways to respond to various stakeholders. For example, in the project, stakeholders identified the information needed to make decisions and in what form they would like the information.

By merging the two processes into one, for example, stakeholders have identified important leadership concepts for education programs. These concepts can then be selected from the matrix which will offer suggestions for learner objectives, educational materials, evaluation questions and key response words.

This regional project is to move evaluation, utilization and dissemination to the action step. From interview result information, four model report ideas have been chosen to illustrate utilization of information for reporting to stakeholders: 1. Project Brief (stakeholders A & B); 2. Participant Profile (stakeholders B & C); 3. Testimony (stakeholders B & D); and 4. Audio or video tape (stakeholders B). Any of the above model report ideas can be made into an audio or video tape.

DISSEMINATION WORKSHOP
PARTICIPANTS DISCUSSION OF OPPORTUNITIES

One of the workshop objectives was to build a state team commitment to use the project materials and workshop experience. To get the multiplier effect, participants were encouraged to work with staff interested in incorporating leadership education with other subject areas.

One of the activities to accomplish this goal was small group discussion on Leadership Education and Issue-focused Program Evaluation. A summary of the opportunities identified by participants follows:

A. Extension System Opportunities

- Build ties with other agencies;
- Provide visibility for Extension and its Volunteers;
- Build partnerships with private professional organizations;
- Develop creative methods for setting priorities and eliminating less relevant activities;
- Provide risk takers with support and security.

B. Extension Program Opportunities

- New volunteers on a short term basis;
- Move beyond traditional subject matters;
- Spill-over to traditional programs;
- Identify issue, address it and get people involved in the entire process;
- Legitimize issue/policy programming.

PROJECT CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The Community Leadership National Extension Task Force indicated that an increasing number of leadership development educational programs exist across the country. As Extension move toward issues programming, it builds upon a strong tradition of program development based on sound educational theory and successful practice. This regional project complements the program development model.

Conclusions

The project time-line with concurrent workshops impeded progress somewhat because one work group often needed information before the other group was ready.

The data was aggregated by major stakeholder categories because of limited numbers in sub-categories.

The work groups enjoyed the collection of data and analyzing the results, however, it has taken the project coordinators and support staff considerable time in putting the project together. Nine months was not long enough for this "baby" to be born.

The merger of evaluability assessment, and the taxonomy and evaluation matrix provide a comprehensive framework for program development, implementation, evaluation, report back and support.

The Extension stakeholders recommend in-depth education on new directions instead of "OJT", On-the-Job Training.

Recommendations

This new model:

- provides opportunities to adapt it to Issue Focused/National Initiative programs;
- provides opportunities to justify Extension programs both internally and externally with stakeholders;
- provides relative benefit/cost data to address decisions regarding organizational objectives and priorities;
- provides opportunities for joint efforts of Research and Extension;
- provides opportunity for coordination and a systematic approach to the collection and utilization of data for program reporting;
- provides opportunities for the reporting of data by various geographic boundaries -- county, multi-county, state, multi-state, and national;

- provides opportunities to involve more people, attract more resources, and attract new audiences for programs;

- provides opportunity to strengthen staff, and focus and strengthen programs.

Community/Family Leadership Evaluation Project publication is available through the:

Northeast Regional Center for Rural Development
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The Pennsylvania State University
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LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: THE CRITICAL LINK IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

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INTRODUCTION

With the advent of the 1980's the fortunes of rural America declined dramatically. What was initially viewed as an agricultural crisis with import primarily for those areas dependent on agriculture was later perceived to be a full blown rural crisis impacting most, if not all, rural areas and segments of the rural economy (Beaulieu, 1988). A combination of events -- national and international market forces, deregulation of financial and transportation industries, the shift within the United States towards a service based economy, changes within traditional agriculture, and the emergence of new technology -- combined to seriously impair the ability of rural communities to retain existing jobs and capture new ones. For the first time in twenty years, rural residents failed to make real economic gains relative to their urban counterparts (Drabenstott et al., 1986; Henry et al., 1986; Dillman, 1988). As a result, interest in rural development at the federal, state, and local level is perhaps at its highest point since the depression years of the 1930's.

The renewed interest in rural development is reflected in both research and Extension activities of the Land Grant University System and in the activities of a variety of other public and private agencies. Numerous books, reports, and conferences have been generated, and "Revitalizing Rural America" is one of eight national priorities identified by the Cooperative Extension Service (Mulkey and Clouser, 1987). Examples of this interest, in addition to the studies cited above, include a publication by the Joint Economic Committee of the U.S. Congress(1986), a National Rural Entrepreneurship Symposium sponsored by several agencies (Southern Rural Development Center, 1987), a regional workshop by the Southern Natural Resource Economics Committee
(SNREC, 1987), a major study by the Economic Research Service (USDA, 1987), a conference by the North Central Regional Center for Rural Development(Korsching and Gildner, 1986), a series of Regional Rural Development Policy Workshops (1988), work sponsored by the National Governors' Association (John, Batie

and Norris, 1988), and work by the Experiment Station Committee on Organization and Policy (1988).

However, the various studies generated at the state, regional, or federal level can only serve to delineate general dimensions of the development problem and are ineffective in outlining strategies that are community-based. Each community is unique in terms of the particular dimensions of the problems it faces, in terms of its location and resource constraints, and in terms of its ability to engage in concerted action to address problems. Thus, successful community development efforts are, to a large extent, dependent on locally generated knowledge of the community and how it works (Mulkey, 1989; Hobbs, 1987). Community development is viewed as a community-wide process which focuses on increasing the capacity of the community for self-help and self-direction (Wilkinson, 1988; Ryan, 1987). Community action is an essential ingredient of the community development process and is dependent on the existence of key individuals with the abilities, willingness, and vision to assume leadership roles (Israel and Beaulieu, 1989; Winter, 1988). Economic development is viewed as a process which goes beyond simple considerations of growth in a community. Rather, it focuses on structural and institutional change within a community which contributes to the long run economic vitality of the area (Shaffer, 1989; Shaffer and Summers, 1988).

With the importance of local leadership in mind, this paper examines the role of leadership development within the context of the community/economic development process. The paper will first explore the concept of community and community/economic development and the role of local leadership within this framework. The conceptual framework will then be used as a basis for suggesting extension community/economic development programs which recognize the importance of local leadership and which focus on leadership development as a critical component of the community/economic development process. The paper argues that without strong local leadership, development efforts are likely to be ill conceived and, all too often, doomed to failure at the outset. Further, the paper argues that, in rural areas in particular, successful development depends on extension's willingness to assume a major role in training a cadre of qualified, visionary leaders.

LEADERSHIP AND COMMUNITY/ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: TOWARD A COMMON TERMINOLOGY

Three concepts --leadership, community, and development -- are critical to the thrust of this paper, and all require some definition for purposes of clarity. Unfortunately, the terms are all somewhat nebulous and are used by

different people to mean different things at different times (Hobbs and Powers, 1976; Wilkinson, 1988; Shaffer, 1989). The terms "community development" and "economic development" are commonly used interchangeably to refer to growth in a community as measured in demographic or economic terms. Alternatively, as Wilkinson and Shaffer, respectively, use the two terms, they refer to increasing a community's capacity for common action and to structural changes which increase the economic vitality of a community. By the same token, the term "leadership" is used with various meanings. It may refer to specific elected or appointed officials or to what Hobbs and Powers call, "...that intangible factor that makes one group more effective than another." Some effort to clarify terms and establish more precise definitions is in order.

As regards the audience for this paper, the term leadership probably needs less attention by way of definition. Hobbs and Powers (1976) offer a definition sufficient to establish a common terminology for the remainder of the paper. They begin by noting the difficulty of defining leadership in any precise way and by focusing on its dynamic and intangible nature. They indicate that leadership involves leaders and followers, potential leadership ability and learned leadership skills, specialized knowledge, and finally, a particular situation within which leadership takes place.

Hobbs and Powers then offer a more precise definition, "Leadership is interpersonal influence, exercised in a situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals." They note that leadership involves someone (the leader) trying to influence someone else (the follower), and that in addition to learned leadership skills which establish potential, the actual exercise of leadership depends on both specialized knowledge and a particular situation. In other words, different people with different knowledge and skills are likely to be leaders in different places at different times. Leadership is a process which consists of several components, and each component of the leadership process -- learned skills, specialized knowledge, and situation -- offers the opportunity to integrate leadership training into community/economic development programs.

Like leadership, community/economic development is also a process, one that focuses on developing the capacity of a group of people to organize themselves to deal with common problems and on the increased economic vitality of the community. As commonly used the word "community" usually refers to some particular place, but the concept of place, in and of itself, is inadequate to support a useful definition of community. For any particular group, there must be some reference to a set of mutual interactions and some common interests to

be served by those interactions (Shaffer, 1989). Ryan (1987) using different terminology refers to community as consisting of territory, organization, and action.

Various dictionary definitions (Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary) offer further insight into the concept of community:

> The people with common interests living in a particular area; interacting populations of various kinds of individuals in a common location; a group of people with a common characteristic or interest living together within a larger society; a group linked by a common policy; a body of persons having a common interest...scattered through a larger society.

In brief, the idea of place is secondary to that of common interests in defining a particular community. For example, when speaking of particular groups (retired persons, military personnel, college students, professionals, etc.) the word community is applicable without reference to place. This is not to imply that community/economic development programs of the Cooperative Extension Service and other agencies either can or should be implemented without respect to place. Rather, it is to stress the importance of common interests and the ability to act on those interests to the eventual success of such programs.

Further, thinking of a community as a geographic place while at the same time making place considerations secondary to common interests, stresses the dynamics of the community concept. In other words, the geographic boundaries of a community are established by the delineation of common interests. This allows the boundaries of a community to change with a different set of interests, and it allows for the existence of sub-communities defined by a single issue within the boundaries of a larger community (Shaffer, 1989). Further, this approach to thinking of community allows for the regionalization of community development or economic development activities where common interests extend across several geographically defined communities, it allows consideration of the fact that communities compete with each other in a variety of economic and political arenas, and it stresses that actions in a particular community are strongly influenced by ties to the larger community of which it is a part (Shaffer, 1989; Shaffer and Summers; 1988).

Further distinction can now be made between economic development and community development and between the idea of development as opposed to growth in a community. As noted earlier, the term "develop" (to promote the growth of, to expand by a process of growth, to cause to grow) is often used to refer

to community growth as measured in demographic or economic terms, and in some cases, the related term "development" is used to refer to particular events which take place in a particular community (ie; a new shopping center, a new/expanded business, a new industrial plant, a new residential sub-division, etc.). Such references usually refer only to the quantifiable aspects of community growth and do not consider structural, institutional, or technological change in the community nor do they address equity considerations. In contrast, "community development" or "economic development", as used here, presumes structural and institutional change within the community and requires explicit consideration of equity issues (Wilkinson, 1988; Shaffer, 1989; Shaffer and Summers, 1988; Ryan, 1987; Coffey and Polese, 1984; Flammang, 1979). The concepts are certainly related to community/economic growth and are often measured using the same variables, however, they imply considerably more than growth.

Community development refers to those community changes which increase the capacity of a group of people to identify and act on behalf of common interests. Wilkinson (1988), with respect to defining community development, notes that:

> "...the most useful definitions take the process of community action as the essential ingredient of community development. As a process, community development means capacity building-- building (or at least trying to build) the capacity for self- help and self-direction through community action."

He continues to add that, "Action is community action when people work together to solve problems and express the interests they share in the local society." Further, "Community development occurs in community action when people try to improve their ability to work together."

Ryan (1987) illustrates the community development concept by way of example of two communities facing similar circumstances but with different outcomes. Each community had access to a substantial sum of money to upgrade local services with the stipulation that these funds be matched through private donations and local fundraising activities. One community successfully responded to the challenge and within a matter of weeks exceeded the required local funds by more than 30 percent. The other community failed to get the outside funding after considerable turmoil over who should be responsible for raising the required local funds. Community development (the capacity for local action) allowed one community to take advantage of an economic development opportunity through its capacity to respond, as a community, to the situation.

As the example illustrates, successful community development is related to and can result in economic development (Ryan, 1987; Wilkinson, 1988). By the same token, a lack of economic development in a community as reflected in high unemployment, inadequate public services, and high levels of inequality can detract from a community's capacity to work together on behalf of common interests (Wilkinson, 1988). Alternatively, economic improvements which reduce income inequality and increase the tax base may, in the long run, contribute to community development.

The concept of "economic development" differs from that of "community development" only in that its focus is more narrow. Community actions are focused on improving the economic vitality of the community where "vitality" reflects a community's capacity to sustain economic activity over time in the face of changing consumer demands for goods and services produced in the community and changes in the community's resource base (Shaffer and Summers, 1988). Economic development may be viewed as either a subset of community development activities or as the eventual goal of those activities.

Either economic development or community development may be accompanied by or result from community/economic growth, but either may take place in the absence of growth, and in some instances, growth may detract from development in a community. For example, success of community development efforts may be measured by changes in political access, the responsiveness of local government, or the satisfaction community residents gain from being able to influence their own destiny (Libby, 1986). Economic diversification in response to changing market conditions for a major commodity produced in a community can result in increased economic vitality without growth. An example is provided by a small southern town where a statue of a boll weevil commemorates the area's reduced dependence on cotton.

Linkages between community development and economic development are often indirect and long run in nature. For example, community development programs to improve education in a community, provide better public services, or improve environmental quality may, in the long run, make significant contributions to economic development. All such actions make a community a more attractive place to live and influence a community's ability to compete for economic activity.

THE COMMUNITY/ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Community development then is a process consisting of actions to improve the welfare of community residents through increased capacity for community

action, and economic development is a subset of those actions focusing on the economy of the community. Outcomes of either process may include community growth, but development differs fundamentally from growth. Further, to discuss development as a result of community action implies that development represents directed change in a community as opposed to change that arises from factors beyond community control (Libby; 1986). This further implies that development as a process must include introspective activities such as needs assessment, various community analyses, consensus building, and goal setting as a precursor to action programs designed to accomplish community goals.

The development process includes problem identification, assessment of the community's organizational structure (or capacity) to address the problems, developing the necessary capacity, and the design and implementation of action programs to address community problems. All such activities are group oriented and, as noted earlier, depend on local leadership to be effective. Where such leadership exists, communities are likely to be found actively involved in a process of coming to grips with community needs, and community development programs of the Cooperative Extension Service and others may focus on providing assistance to ongoing community efforts.

In many rural communities, however, effective local leadership may not exist, and community development efforts must include efforts to identify and train a cadre of community leaders (Winter, 1988). Leadership training may be incorporated as an integral part of community/economic development programs, or alternatively, a leadership training program may serve as the vehicle to allow the identification of community problems, an assessment of alternative approaches to solving those problems, and the design of action programs to address community problems.

The remainder of this paper offers specific suggestions for integrating leadership and community development programs by incorporating community development and/or economic development activities into leadership training programs. Suggestions are developed around a particular leadership training program offered in Florida communities through the Florida Cooperative Extension Service, Institute of Food and Agricultural Sciences, University of Florida (Beaulieu). Community development suggestions are taken from a variety of sources including Hustedde, Shaffer, and Pulver (1984), Woods, et al. (1989), and Cooperative Extension Service.

The leadership development program used as the basis for suggestions in the following section is organized into five major components: (1) Introduction to Public Problem Solving; (2) Individual and Group Skills; (3) The Community and its Leadership Structure; (4) Analyzing a Public Problem;

and (5) Working with Government to Solve Public Problems.[1] Usually the course is offered in thirteen 2 1/2-3 hour weekly sessions to a class of 25-40 people. The program provides the flexibility to combine sessions or to add additional sessions depending on the desires of the particular audience. This flexibility allows the program to be adapted to serve the community/economic development needs of a particular community.

LEADERSHIP TRAINING FOR COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

This section offers specific suggestions for community/economic development content to be included in a formal leadership development course. Such a program may be offered by a variety of public or private agencies in a community, but suggestions here assume implementation under the auspices of the Cooperative Extension Service with efforts made to enlist the support and cooperation of other groups and agencies in the community. The existence of an appropriate Extension Advisory Committee is assumed. Such a group is critical in adapting the course to community needs, in soliciting community-wide support, and ensuring that leadership trainees represent a broad spectrum of community residents. Further, suggestions assume that the leadership program is offered within the context of an Extension community development program or a public affairs leadership effort. That is, that Extension is prepared to support and maintain initiatives growing out of the initial leadership training exercise.

The following sections address specific points. Some suggestions conform to specific course work blocks which can be included in the leadership course. Others relate more to the goals to be accomplished by the course itself, and some relate to developing program efforts which grow out of initiatives established in the leadership training process.

1. Community residents (as represented by advisory committee members) must understand the community development process and the role of leadership training within that context.

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[1] Details of the IFAS Leadership Program and copies of training materials are available from Lionel J. Beaulieu, Department of 4H and Youth Programs, IFAS, University of Florida, Gainesville, Florida 32611.

As noted in the previous discussion, the process of development at the community level is fundamentally different from simple community growth measured in economic or demographic terms. Unfortunately, this difference frequently is not clear. As a result, development activities at the community level are often defined in terms of industrial recruitment/job creation with little if any attention to other aspects of the development process.

Many rural communities currently offer a variety of inducements to new industry including tax breaks and free or low- cost land and buildings, and many communities devote resources to establishing industrial parks and other types of physical infrastructure designed to attract industry. Often, these ventures have little chance of success and may come at the expense of other community improvements. This is not always the case, but a broader view of the development process is necessary to ensure consideration of the full range of alternatives.

Leadership training programs, when offered within a community development framework, provide an opportunity to elaborate on the development process at the community level. Allowing trainees to identify and evaluate development programs available in their community could provide a useful learning experience and provide sufficient background for considering the need for additional development programs.

2. Effective local leadership and successful community development efforts must be grounded in a thorough understanding of the community and how it works, including the political, social and economic context within which the community exists.

Hobbs (1987) forcefully reminds us of this point by noting that, "It strains credibility to assume that local development will travel far on ignorance of the locality and how it works." Given this need, leadership training classes can offer a setting within which trainees begin a systematic effort to understand the social, political, and economic setting of their community. Data about general community trends (population, income, employment) may be available from secondary sources. However, in most rural communities, secondary data will need to be supplemented with locally collected data. Learning data collection and analysis techniques through local applications will both improve the learning experience and provide information vital to local development efforts.

Information about the community included in this type of data collection/ learning exercise could be determined by the students themselves in the context of the community/community development framework developed in the previous

suggestion. Examples of useful information could include: (1) listings of public and private agencies in the community or agencies that have program responsibility in the community along with descriptions of the types of services offered to community residents; (2) information on local government finances including sources of revenue, tax rates, expenditures by type of service, and an understanding of how financial decisions are made; (3) information on the local economy including employment, income, sources of economic activities, products produced in the community, and the number and type of business firms operating in the community; (4) information on the structure and operation of local government and community representation at the state and federal level; and (5) information on population in the community including growth rates, income distribution, age, education, poverty status, etc. with comparisons to averages for similar communities and for the state.

A community analytical exercise such as that suggested also offers an opportunity to expose trainees to Extension specialists from a variety of disciplines who could be brought in to assist with particular efforts. Personnel from other state or local government agencies could also be invited to participate in the training effort. Further, such efforts could actually produce products useful to individuals outside the class. Directories of local service agencies or business firms, a community economic base study, or a community financial analysis could be used by others and more importantly, could provide the basis for further Extension programs.

3. Leadership development programs can serve to encourage wider participation in community development activities.

Community development as a process is more likely to be effective when all groups in the community are full participants. Inequality--social, economic, or political--is perhaps the biggest detractor from the ability of communities to establish common interests and engage in community action on behalf of those interests (Wilkinson, 1988). By consciously attempting to broaden the leadership skills and participation among groups not usually involved in community leadership roles, leadership training programs can begin to overcome this problem. Further, when leadership trainees are representative of the community in terms of race, gender, and socioeconomic status, interactions within the class can begin the process of fostering mutual understanding between community groups.

4. Program resources must be available to support initiatives growing out of the leadership program.

This point is primarily to suggest that leadership development, in the larger context of community development, is likely to be more effective if initiatives (momentum) from the initial class are not lost through inactivity following the completion of the formal leadership training exercise. In other words, the leadership course should not be an end in itself. Rather, it should be viewed as a prelude to (or foundation for) a continuing series of community/economic development activities.

Ideas for follow up programs should grow directly out of the community analytical exercise discussed above. Such activities could include the formation of new community organizations with members of the leadership training class providing the membership core. Types of programs which could be developed are limited only by the scope of community needs and the imagination of residents. Program examples include business retention/expansion, dropout prevention, educational improvements, child care, summer/after school recreational programs, youth employment programs, environmental awareness/action groups, community fairs and celebrations, etc.. Obviously, no one class is going to address the full range of community problems, but at least one continuing program seems a reasonable objective of any leadership training effort.

5. Leadership training should strive to establish realistic expectations for the community/economic development process.

Finally, a caution is in order regarding the outcomes of community development activities and the speed with which activities are achieved. Development is a long, slow process and most activities/programs are not likely to yield dramatic results in short periods of time. Community development efforts, particularly those focused on economic development, are likely to involve a great deal of "wishful" or "unrealistic" thinking. Every community wants to attract the big plant that employs more than 500 people, but for most, a more realistic goal has a much greater chance of success.

CONCLUDING COMMENTS

Rural communities currently face a variety of problems symptomatic of declining economic vitality and a lack of local capacity to deal with and effectively address community problems. Community development activities offer

the potential for increasing a community's capacity for action and can result in economic development. However, effective community development is dependent on the quality of leaders within a community and on their willingness to assume key roles in the development process.

Leadership development programs offered through the Cooperative Extension Service provide an opportunity to train a cadre of local leaders in many rural communities. Further, in addition to the necessary individual and group skills, such programs can be modified to establish an information base to support continuing community/economic development activities.

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VOLUNTEER LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT: CHANGING PARADIGMS

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The Cooperative Extension Service since its beginning has fostered the development of leadership skills in its clientele, either directly or as part of other educational programs. Traditional views of leadership focused on ideas that "leaders are born, not made" or that leadership rests on official power or position. Current views are shifting toward an expanded scope, placing more emphasis on situational leadership, vision, ethics, and human development concepts. Participatory leadership is growing as a response to changing situations. Teaching, practice, coaching, and support are crucial factors in today's Extension leadership development programs. This paper describes some past and some current program ideas about volunteer leadership development. Examples of Extension leadership programs are used to illustrate varying models and methodological problems. Program results-- anticipated and actual--and their significance to the new Extension Initiatives are discussed.

This paper addresses the question: Is the current emphasis on leadership development--with its shift to a broader view--a change in paradigms? Or is it evolutionary--broadening and enlargement of the scope of traditional programming? The dictionary definition of a paradigm is "a pattern, example, or model." Thomas Kuhn in The Scientific Revolution (1970) says that almost all scientists accept certain truisms as a base for their work. Their paradigm is the validity of these truths. He goes on to say that a true scientific revolution occurs when someone successfully challenges and changes the paradigm. The natural reaction of those whose work is radically altered or destroyed by a shift in paradigms is disbelief and often anger.

Joel Barker (1988) says scientists use the word paradigm to describe "mental rules and regulations" (such as a bicycle seat should look like a

saddle or human beings cannot run the mile in less than four minutes). Such rules define our boundaries of understanding and acceptance. He defines a paradigm shift as surprising, abrupt, unprecedented, revolutionary, rule-altering, change.

A less extreme, more positive view of changes in paradigms is related to creative thinking and problem solving. Successful management of change is encouraged by looking at things from varying perspectives. Such "paradigm flexibility" facilitates adaptation to new situations. Paradigms affect our ways of thinking and acting. They serve as a filter that helps us judge what we see, categorize information, and understand how things relate to one another. They can also help us apply past learning to new situations.

People tend to hear and remember the information that fits their paradigms, and to discount or forget other information that does not fit. New paradigms most often come from people who have no vested interest in the existing ones. Barker (1988) suggests that both individuals and organizations can encourage paradigm flexibility and innovative thinking.

What's our paradigm? While today's views of volunteer leadership development certainly involve a change in focus and emphasis, they do not seem to have the "revolutionary" aspects that may be associated with a paradigm shift. However, many changes in patterns and ways of thinking are involved. The national Extension initiative, Building Human Capital, sets goals of developing human resources which are important in both monetary and non-monetary terms (USDA, 1988). Human capital is the term used to describe investments in people. In economic terms, it is the productive ability resulting from investments in education and training, in health, and other factors which lead to an increased capacity to produce. Economists generally measure human capital in expected earnings over the life span (Kreps, 1974). Building human capital in a broader sense means developing the knowledge, skills, abilities, and other human resources people have in order to reach their full potential. Kansas renamed this initiative "Developing Human Resources" (Kansas, 1987) in order to more specifically identify the content. Education for building human capital takes place in families, organizations, communities, schools, and work places. Leadership Development is one of the critical issue areas within the initiative.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Lifelong learning and adapting to change is fundamental to solving problems and taking advantage of opportunities in many different situations

(Cropley, 1980). The current need for leadership, education, and decision-making ability is based on the increasing complexity of issues facing people throughout the state. The recurring turnover among local officials and volunteer leaders in Extension and community programs make this need more pressing (ECOP, 1987, Kansas, 1987). Well informed and effective leaders can help others identify and use appropriate research based information to address organizational and community concerns and stimulate effective group action. Leadership development programs involve a variety of topics dealing with interpersonal skills, teaching methods, working with groups, and understanding social change, as well as subject matter related to specific topic areas.

Research and theories about volunteer leadership development draw from a wide variety of fields. Many concepts and methodologies are relevant. Much new research both asks new questions and explores new, as yet incomplete, answers. In reviewing theories and empirical studies, our purpose is to look for and try to distinguish between concepts which indicate changing paradigms and concepts which build on and expand prior work.

Adult Education

Recent studies have indicated that adult learning is different from children's learning. Knowles (1973) finds that differences between adult learning and child learning are found in self concept, in experience, in readiness to learn and in time perspectives. Lifelong learning (Long, 1983) is becoming an accepted goal as careers, interests, and situations change over the life span.

Adults are independent. They commonly resent being placed in situations where they are treated as children. They prefer a learning climate of mutual respect between teacher (leader) and learner; like to determine their own learning needs; and are usually self-directed and responsible.

Since adults have lived longer, they have acquired more experiences and skills and want to use these experiences in new learning situations. They are capable of being both learner and teacher in a given setting. The teacher/leader helps them see how to apply their knowledge to new problems. Many adults who have been away from the classroom for years are worried about their ability to learn. A practical, active approach to adult learning is most useful and often best received. Learners benefit from a teacher/leader who facilitates the learning process by raising questions, suggesting activities, correcting misunderstandings, encouraging inquiry, and identifying learning that has already occurred. The teacher/leader assists in the process in which

others are the principal actors. Learning becomes a partnership with reciprocal exchanges between the teacher/leader and the learners.

Truly creative teachers of adults seldom press information on adult learners until they are ready to learn. They may, however, ask leading questions,demonstrate techniques, and raise provocative issues to stimulate the learning process. Georges (1988) reminds us that adult learning research shows that learning about a skill doesn't necessarily develop that skill. Experiential or hands-on learning is required. Learners need the opportunity to practice, receive feedback (both positive and negative) and practice again. Seaman Knapp, founder of the Extension Service, said "Tell me, I forget; Show me, I remember; Involve me, I understand." The Smith-Lever Act included "...the practical application of research based knowledge" as part of the mandate to the Extension Service.

Approaches to Leadership Theory

The various views of leadership in sociology, community development, and other fields are growing in number. Leadership theory has been classified in several ways. Five conceptual perspectives (trait, behavioral, situational-contingency, transactional, and attributional) were identified in the review by the National Extension Task Force for Community Leadership (1984). Recent work at the University of Minnesota (Sheffert, 1989, Terry, 1989) organizes leadership theory into six schools of thought (trait, situational, organizational, power, vision, and assessed vision) and adds their own seventh view -- reflective leadership-action leadership. Research on leadership theory finds that:

- From a trait perspective, leadership is conceived of simply as a person's influence on a group of other people. It is thought that certain leader traits cause certain responses in followers. Leadership is developing talents people have at birth. Thus, the trait research has focused on identifying the characteristics that distinguish leaders from followers and effective leaders from ineffective leaders.

- From a behavioral perspective, which also centers on leadership as a person's influence on a group, the influence is thought to be caused by the leader's behaviors as opposed to personal traits. The behavior research has attempted to identify the most effective set of leader behaviors. Early studies identified three distinct styles--authoritarian, democratic, and laissez faire. Later studies focused on two broad categories, consideration and structure.

- From the situational perspective, leadership is still viewed as influence others, but the influence is affected by changing conditions and situations. Thus, leader traits and behaviors, modified by situational contigencies, cause certain responses in followers. Research according to this approach has aimed to discover the most effective leader traits and behaviors, given specified situational variables. Leadership is regarded as matching the resources of the leader with the resources of the group.

- The fourth perspective, transactional, says that the influence exerted in leadership situations is recognized as a reciprocal exchange between leaders and followers. Leadership is a transaction in which leaders and followers mutually influence and respond to each other in an exchange process. Research on this approach has focused on how the leader-follower relationship develops and changes over time and on what kinds of exchange processes are most effective.

- According to the attributional perspective, each individual has certain conceptions about leadership and certain expectations about how effective leaders should behave. Leadership is a perceptual construct attributed to others by those involved in the leadership situation. An effective leader is one who is perceived as effective. Attribution research has attempted to describe individuals' perceptions about effective leadership, the analytical process of attributing leadership to others, and the processes used by leaders when attributing follower behavior to certain causes.

- The power approach to leadership includes both "power over" (focus on getting the group to attain the leader's goals), and "power with" (focus on accomplishing others' goals). Leadership is the effective use of power to make a difference. Power may stem from position, influence, or other sources. Directive power (power over) is often viewed as negative, because coercion, force, intimidation, and manipulation strategies are used (Wilson, 1981). Synergic power (power with or empowerment), on the other hand, is the capacity of an individual or group to increase the satisfaction of all participants through increased creativity and energy.

- Visionary definitions consider leadership as vision, as looking at and clarifying trends and patterns for future direction. Leaders explore what has never been done before. Synergic power leaders share visions of what might be, share knowledge and information about that vision, and encourage sharing of ideas by all those affected.

- Ethical--assessed vision definitions raise the question: Leadership toward what? Why things should be done as well as how to do them is important. Education in contrast to advocacy and open-vs.-hidden agendas in leadership training programs are practical aspects of this view.

- The reflective leadership--action leadership perspective combines many parts of traits, situations, power, and vision with an emphasis on combining ultimate meaning and fulfillment with action (Sheffert, 1989). Framing or diagnosing a problem in order to identify opportunities for understanding and action is an important tool (Terry, 1989).

Garber (1988) summarizes educational approaches to leadership in six or seven slightly different views. He finds at least seven perspectives on leadership (power/influence; trait; behavioral; situation/contingency; organizational; transactional; and attributional). In addition, he recommends consideration of leadership as a subset of human action that is affected by situational forces, role and position, as well as motive, position, personal and other power resources. He agrees with Vandenburg et al. (ECOP, 1987) that Extension workers should use an eclectic approach in developing educational programs.

The Leadership vs. Management Question

Leadership in contrast to management is another avenue for both research and training, with implications for many Extension programs. In Extension work, leadership and management functions are sometimes held by different people, sometimes by the same person wearing different hats...or using different paradigms.

Much of the research has been conducted in business and industrial organizations, rather than in educational or volunteer systems, which are often more participant centered. Management is defined as planning, organizing, staffing, directing, and controlling. Leadership has been far less well defined partly because of its association with charisma, which may be impossible to define and exist only in the eye of the beholder. Several studies (Bellman, 1985, Mironoff, 1988, Zenger, 1985) suggest that what is needed for business use is an operational definition of leadership and descriptions of how leaders behave and how that behavior separates the managers.

Zenger (1985) finds that leaders are good communicators,...articulating the mission and goals of their organizations. They are persuasive, speak authoritatively, and they are listened to. They focus on emotional issues that

connect with their followers with quality of product, dedication to customer service, and dignity of worth of employees. They give meaning and purpose to work in order to motivate employees.

Leaders draw attention to key issues. They choose priorities carefully, knowing only a limited number of goals can be achieved at one time. Leaders connect their group to the outside world. A leader serves as a link to the rest of the organization and to the outside world...both giving and getting information. The leader is at the hub of a complex network of relationships with other groups.

Leaders inspire lofty accomplishments and model appropriate behavior. They use small wins to build confidence and motivate people to do more, to constantly strive to pass prior levels of achievement.

Leaders can be persuasive by including thoughts and ideas of others. Leaders give credit to others and make decisions after weighing the collective wisdom of subordinates and peers. Today's business leader may need to be more of a coach than a commander. In this respect, the idea of participatory leadership or decision-making is gaining credence in the business world as well as in volunteer situations.

The preceding descriptions focused on some characteristics, functions and impacts of leaders and leadership. We find that there is as yet no generally accepted "best approach" or paradigm regarding conceptual or methodological issues about volunteer leadership development.

Each of the various theories and perspectives can contribute to educational programs. The crucial need is to develop the framework most pertinent to the specific educational needs of various types of clientele with diverse goals and interests. Personal self-development and growth are key components in Extension programs, whether leadership development per se or subject matter is the primary focus.

Program Development

Extension program development literature shows that a combination of quantitative and qualitative measures are needed to both design and assess the results of Extension leadership development programs. Intuitive skills are often used with regard to the arts and human relationships. It's difficult to quantify these aspects of our existence. Judgments are an integral part of leadership development, making qualitative methods a valuable tool for research and program evaluation. Patton (1980) provides a foundation for qualitative

research and insights into the process. He indicates that qualitative data consist of detailed descriptions of situations, events, people, interactions, and observed behaviors; direct quotations from people about their experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts; and excerpts or entire passages from documents, correspondence, records, and case histories. The data are collected as open-ended narratives without attempting to fit program activities or peoples' experiences into predetermined, standardized categories such as the response choices that comprise typical questionnaires or tests. Extension evaluation has often included "success stories", which are important indications of accomplishments but sometimes of limited generalizability. Case study techniques offer a valuable tool to document the ways programs develop volunteers' abilities.

Qualitative methodologies make important contributions in the areas of generating hypotheses and insights into attitudes and behavior, developing research strategies to be used when gathering data, exploring new fields and concepts, interpreting results obtained from quantitative research, and providing attractive results for decision makers who desire a more complete, humanistic view of a situation rather than just numerical data.

Quantitative measures, such as dollars or numbers of participants, also have a vital role in assessing the costs and results of leadership programs. Many of the strategies for developing good leaders are time and labor intensive. The group interactions and individual coaching, which contribute so much to skill development require personal contact, which mean time and travel expenses. Communication and follow-up are expensive, too.

The expected outcome of leadership development training is beginning to receive more specific attention. For example, "community leadership" training has a different goal than leadership development for teaching or project management. Community Leadership is commonly considered within the context of the public decision-making process. The Extension task force (1984) says:

> Community Leadership is that which involves influence, power, and input into public decision-making over one or more spheres of activity. The spheres of activity may include an organization, an area of interest, an institution, a town, county or a region. Leadership capacity extends beyond the skills necessary to maintain a social service and/or activities organization. The leadership skills include those necessary for public decision-making, policy development, program implementation, and organizational maintenance.

The goal of leadership development for many of Extension's volunteer teachers is closely related to methods for teaching adults. Developing the ability to disseminate information and encourage its use requires training in specific subject matter areas and sometimes program management, as well as some of the other leadership content areas. Project leaders or master leaders in subject areas, such as clothing construction or gardening which exemplify the teachers as leaders. Function goals and objectives are often specified in individual teaching guides or training programs.

Program evaluations which assess intangible accomplishments, as well as which have dollar value measures, and end results are vital to the program development process. An overemphasis on numbers reached can detract from a quality program and lead to superficial lectures or "just watching the video" teaching methods, rather than experiential learning. A balanced set of program goals will include both tangible and intangible results. Individual success stories help explain the value of leadership development programs. One new program (Iowa, 1988) focuses on end results of community action rather than assessing individuals' changes or accomplishments.

Effective program management, which also has qualitative and quantitative components, is important. Volunteers contribute much, in areas such as hours, knowledge, skill, and teaching, but coordination and motivation and management are needed. The processes of recruiting people and marketing programs are receiving new attention.

Leadership development programming can be examined in a comprehensive way using a continuum in human development. Such a perspective may regard individual development as the initial step (developing a positive self image, creating a support base with others). This is followed by interpersonal development (including learning to improve communication skills, to teach others, and understand the role of the volunteer and the volunteer organization). Group and organizational development is the next step (with a focus on acquiring leadership skills and group problem solving skills). In turn, this is followed by a public policy orientation (first increasing knowledge about community issues, then understanding the larger system and state/national issues, and increased participation in policy making). One difficulty in programming from this perspective is that people tend to move in an out of the continuum at various levels, rather than along a straight line of progress. An individual may be learning and developing at several stages at the same time. Not everyone regards involvement in state/national issues as the final goal, but may prefer to maintain a local/community focus.

A matrix or diagram model which shows interrelationships can take account of shifts and interrelationships. Although it makes a more complicated model, it is helpful in better targeting of audiences in different stages of leadership development with the curriculum they need at the "teachable moment."

A further difficulty in analyzing and developing leadership training programs is the content areas. Some programs are primarily a "one shot" specialized session. How to conduct a meeting or the duties of the treasurer are examples. A somewhat broader training might deal with effective meetings, including agendas, parliamentary procedure, consensus, or combinations as decision-making procedures, goals, group building activities and the physical environment. Some are structure, some procedurally oriented. Sometimes many topics are integrated, so that participants can more clearly see the interrelationship; others are rather isolated and more difficult for people to generalize and apply in other settings.

Content analysis is one of the research and evaluations/techniques encountered more frequently today. This method combines qualitative and quantitative techniques which give new insights into individual behavior, trends, or program curriculum (Hayes, 1988). The National Impact Study of Leadership Development in Extension (1985-87) identified thirteen content areas in their taxonomy of leadership skills and knowledge (ECOP, 1987).

Changes in thinking about leadership, particularly the aspects relevant to Extension programming, may include these shifts:

Leader makes decision	to	Group makes decision
Hierarchy	to	Teamwork
Directive and controlling	to	Enabling and learning
Conflict	to	Cooperation
Reactive and responsive	to	Proactive and creative
Exclusive	to	Inclusive
Single function	to	Multi-function

The question we explore is whether these are gradual trends or changes in paradigms. The review of the literature suggests a gradual building on and expansion of earlier work, rather than an abandonment or abrupt switch in the theoretical bases or program application.

PROGRAM ANALYSIS: SOME KANSAS EXAMPLES

One major methodological problem is selecting a definition of leadership development. We decided to define it broadly. Leadership includes the process of using knowledge and influence to help a person or a group achieve their goals, beliefs people have about what makes effective leaders, and the qualities, behaviors, skills, and knowledge of individuals perceived as effective leaders. This definition includes acquisition of/or improving competencies in the interrelated areas of:

- personal leadership skills;
- teaching and/or facilitating skills;
- understanding organizational concepts;
- group problem solving; and
- community development and public policy processes.

The actual or potential shift or change, degree and direction in programs are described here as first approximations indicating areas for further study. We looked at some of our major problems and programs...old and new. Thinking of paradigm shifts requires thinking about big, even radical changes as compared to gradual evolution. (Extension agents becoming simply information brokers, rather than change agents and teachers, might be such a radical shift.) Since we were looking for broad trends and shifts, we tried to concentrate on some of the major programming areas, recognizing that one can always find exceptions when "painting with a broad brush."

Case studies from counties, areas, and the state illustrate a variety of volunteer activities, types of leadership skills acquired, and changes to leadership positions experienced by participants in Extension programs. Results from the Family Community Leadership program provide additional information about new models and program results.

Program efforts considered for this paper were Extension Leaders/Teachers subject matter training; Community Activities; Family Community Leadership; Volunteer Information Provider Program; Extension Council and Program Development Committees. Program models were considered within an overall framework, purpose, or definition (what type of leadership is involved), what concepts, theory, or content are included, and what types of methods or program formats are used. A brief overview is presented here.

Extension Subject Matter Leader/Teacher Training

Developing human potential is a lifelong process. Self-esteem and personal confidence are fundamental to solving problems and taking advantage of opportunities in many different situations. Participation in Extension educational programs, organizational activities, and community service projects have served as the basis of much volunteer development.

Leadership development training through home economics programs and/or the Extension homemakers organization takes place in a variety of ways. Two fairly distinct types of leadership skills and purposes are involved. One is the "leaders as teachers" function. Extension home economics agents teach leaders, who in turn teach members of their local Extension units and other local groups. Project leaders for 4-H/Youth programs receive training and educational materials which enable them to teach skills and provide information on a wide variety of projects in home economics, agriculture, and other fields. Volunteer leader/teachers learn to apply subject matter information, practice teaching, work with groups and sometimes manage significant programs of work. Personal leadership and learning styles, communications, and teaching methods are influential in the success of group teaching and learning. Trait, behavioral and situational leadership theories are applicable.

The multiplier effect extends information to many more people than an agent could reach alone. In addition, the teacher/leaders demonstrate the actual application of new knowledge to their own real life situations, which encourages learners to also put the information to use. Evaluations of group teaching tend to be more positive when the agent, and in turn the leader, provide well-prepared, organized, practical, timely information, along with some actual demonstration and audience involvement activities.

The master leader concept is growing in importance as demands on agent time and expertise increase. Master leaders are involved in subject areas, such as clothing construction, knitting and crocheting, and gardening. They also serve in project management and community club and council leaders roles. These leaders receive advanced or specialized training, in return for a commitment to teach others. As volunteer leaders take on more responsibilities for both teaching and management, team work and learning/enabling models begin to replace hierarchies and directive models.

Extension units, clubs, and other groups are using many participatory and group decision-making techniques. Decisions range from selection of topics/issues for study to setting of individual goals for learning or for performance accomplishment in contrast to a standardized list. Single concept

lessons are being combined or sequenced into broader problem solving educational programs. Creative program delivery methods are also becoming more evident. Inclusive leadership and networking/coalition building are taking on larger roles in many Extension program efforts.

Community Activities

Citizenship and community service have been key parts of home economics and 4-H youth programs since their beginning. Much of the current activity falls in the community development and economic development field. In rural areas, future oriented, visionary leaders are critical to revitalizing many small communities. Creative approaches and working with a variety of other agencies and organizations are part of the paradigm, but they have roots in many earlier activities. The history of Extension Homemakers in Kansas (Kansas, 1986) finds that:

> For the past 70 years, Extension Homemakers Units have responded to the changing needs of rural Kansas women and their communities. The units serve an educational function, delivering information on homemaking skills to Kansas homemakers. And they have also created a public role for women, enabling them to develop leadership skills and encouraging women to play a vital role in their communities.

From the beginning, Kansas Extension Homemakers Units worked for better health care, education, and other ways of improving the quality of family life. In the 1920's, the units began to emphasize home nursing and health care for children. The first attempts at community-wide health programs in the 1950's included immunization and well-baby clinics run with the help of local doctors. Gradually tuberculosis and cancer clinics followed. Homemakers today are involved in all types of health drives, such as blood mobiles and raising funds for hospital equipment. Several units initiated pure water programs that tested rural wells...perhaps the pioneering effort for the current state initiative on water quality issues.

Early childhood education was a primary focus of activity. In 1943 the Kansas Home Demonstration Advisory Council chose statewide goals to examine substandard physical conditions, inferior instructors and inadequate curriculum in rural schools. They also worked to finance residence halls and provide scholarships at Kansas State Agricultural College, particularly for women students. It is difficult to document the type of training these volunteers received, but their work was clearly successful in many cases.

The other framework is leadership for organizational maintenance and betterment. Officer training is a key program for members who are elected to county councils, as well as those who are chosen to hold office at local, district, or state levels. Such training is provided by experienced officers and by state or area Extension personnel. It introduces new officers to their roles and responsibilities, helps them in carrying out their new assignments in an effective way.

How to conduct a meeting, how to select committee chairpersons and delegate or share tasks, how to plan and conduct a variety of events and projects are included in these trainings. For many women, this is their first experience with group decisions and actions. In some counties, the county agent has traditionally provided direction and planning, but in many counties the officers and members are becoming more active in conducting their own activities. The state council is actively working on becoming more future thinking and goal oriented. The abilities developed carry over into church, civic, and other organizations to which these women belong.

Family Community Leadership

This new project is an educational program that prepares citizens for participation in public policy decisions relating to families and communities. The goals of the FCL project are to:

- Broaden participants' understanding of complex public issues and teach them how to influence policy decisions;
- Increase the effective participation of family members in resolving important family related public issues; and,
- Strengthen organizations in support of individuals interested in resolving family and community issues.

Since the initial planning stages, Kansas approached this as a program which would include participants from all Extension program areas. A current focus is to plan ways to involve older youth as resources, not just recipients of FCL training. Methods of integrating FCL trainers as resources for several interdisciplinary projects are being explored.

The FCL team work approach well illustrates the movement toward participative leadership and decision making. It is a unique, inclusive approach because planning, delivery, and evaluating programs, involves volunteers and Extension staff working as equal partners.

Experiential learning is a highlight of FCL training institutes and other activities. Practicing, coaching, and support are also features. FCL is becoming well known for its bonding exercises, which create a comfortable learning environment, promote trust and teamwork, and provide opportunities for learners to explore new roles and practice new skills and take on activities in the public arena.

Evaluations of the Kansas FCL program found that the program has had benefits to both individuals and the sponsoring organizations. The teamwork and sharing have improved working relationships and fostered cooperation among Extension staff, as well as the volunteers associated with different Extension program areas. FCL has been the vehicle to introduce new clientele to Extension program opportunities. The Extension homemakers organization has benefited from training at state, district, county, and local levels.

Volunteers came to the Kansas FCL program from diverse backgrounds and levels of training and experience in leadership, organization and community involvement. As they implemented their county programs, FCL participants learned to communicate better, to express themselves effectively in public, and to mobilize group action to accomplish goals. Skills learned in FCL are being used in family, church, school, community, and other Extension activities -- a multi-functional use of the training.

> One of the volunteers gave a beautiful testimony when she said, "FCL has boosted my self confidence. To stand up in front of a group and know what you are talking about gives one a sense of power, a sense of power from within. And that is what affects women, the feeling from within."
> Another volunteer said, "I didn't know what I was getting into; I just went." But she came back a devotee of FCL and excited about its prospects. "I liked the idea of volunteers and professionals working as teams and the hands-on method of learning, not just the lecture method. I also liked the idea of being expected to give a sample presentation at the training because you get the first step behind you." This individual was one who particularly benefited from practice rather than just "book learning."
> And another volunteer said, "FCL brings me closer to people in my community. It is an opportunity to help both the community and the individual."

These are just a few examples of individuals with little prior experience in leadership positions. Some participants had never been away from home overnight. One volunteer who could barely manage to give an introduction for a speaker a year ago is now frequently mistaken for a professional due to a

transformation into a polished speaker and leader. Movement into community and political action is also becoming apparent. One volunteer was recently elected mayor on a write-in vote.

Are the FCL goals really different from the goals of early Extension homemakers? Probably not. In past decades, homemakers worked on a variety of family and community betterment projects. The "new" aspects of the FCL program involve a shift or targeting of teaching/learning the skills to influence community or other public decisions -- decisions which must be made in a more complex environment than in earlier times.

Volunteer Information Provider Program

The Volunteer Information Provider Program (VIPP) illustrates a project involving leadership skills and teaching skills. Both subject matter and personal development are key factors in the curriculum. Features of this program are communication, sharing and support. In addition to specific information about the aging process and care of the elderly, participants learn about topics such as communication skills, teamwork/cooperation, teaching family members how to communicate with each other, sharing the work load, and dealing with the stress of care-giving. In Kansas, the program involves a primary team of volunteers, which may include community professionals, and the Extension agent. They identify audiences and provide training in individual and small group sessions. Volunteer teachers assist caregivers to find additional specific information necessary to help their elderly as well as themselves. They also work to identify and access community resources that can help the elderly person. Volunteers are most often members of community-based organizations which have as one of its missions the provision of volunteer services to the community.

The program is facilitated through a liaison with the state, area, and community agencies concerned with aging. Service clubs and senior centers may also be sources of volunteers. This program fills a gap of information and emotional support through team work and inclusive involvement.

Extension Boards and Committees

Many boards and committees (county councils, program development committees who are elected officials, and volunteers who are members of advisory committees, task forces, and hoc committees) are part of the Extension system. Kansas has a long history of local involvement in Extension program planning. County boards in Kansas maintain a great deal of local control over program priorities (problem or subject areas, training, delivery methods, and

events). Board members, who are actually elected officials, and other volunteers are provided either formal or informal training on leadership development and program management topics.

Case studies show that some members of program development committees go on to become Board members and then serve as chairs of county Boards or serve on the state Extension advisory committee. They soon become aware of the need for group decision and policy making skills. At each level of activity, individuals learn by doing. They receive direction and training, either group or individual, on the roles of Board members, methods of designing and handling budgets, justifying needs, program development, and allocating resources. Experienced Board members serve as mentors and coaches for new members.

Leaders who come through this process often become politically active, either as advocates for the Extension Service or for other causes , or they become the leaders in state and national organizations. Leadership skills are extended to many people in organizations and communities through this mechanism.

Career development is often a side benefit of leadership programs. Identification of personal leadership styles and learning styles often helps clarify career aspirations. Communications skills and image, as well as self-confidence are basic to achievement in many fields. Full time or part time careers as public officials develop as a result of Extension training.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Volunteers in today's Extension programs use their abilities to deal with public issues as well as individual problems. In turn these people serve as models, instructors, and leaders to other people in their communities. Designing programs to fit new leadership models requires a broad understanding of today's trends. Programs which foster development of human capital through enhanced capacity for leadership are timely and essential. Any form of group participation offers a natural path to responsible followership, a first step toward developing individual and team responsibility. Extension programs and committees are a first step for many.

Building human capital means developing the skills, abilities, and understanding people need in order to reach their full potential in their families, organizations, communities, and work places.

Among the goals of the Building Human Capital initiative are that:

- Members of organizations and institutions, particularly in rural areas, will improve their leadership skills and their ability to analyze issues, make decisions, and understand political processes for moving toward desired goals.
- The number of citizen volunteers with skills needed for effectively meeting the needs of communities and organizations will be increased.
- People will develop an understanding of and commitment to the volunteer ethic and its importance to a democratic society.

One could argue at length as to whether the changes in leadership development programs are paradigm shifts or evolutionary trends. Sometimes it's mainly a matter of becoming aware of something that's been there all the time, perhaps under a different name. Most likely, we have a hybrid which contains elements of both. The conclusion depends largely on our initial definition of paradigm.

Group decision making is notably evident in Family Community Leadership and many other community and economic development programs. Consensus decision making, in contrast to parliamentary procedure where there are winners and losers, is a feature of many small groups and committees, particularly there is an on-going commitment to common goals.

Teamwork, along with the networking and group decision-making, is evidenced by successful interdisciplinary efforts and cooperative work with other agencies and groups. There is much interest today in conflict management, a skill which can be learned and practiced by those who share common goals and/or who seek to set priorities to maximize satisfaction from limited resources. Cooperation instead of turf protection is also illustrated by the growth of interdisciplinary, problem solving efforts.

Participatory leaders realize that strong associates are a must, they foster and thrive by sharing success with others. Frequent meetings of teams/groups create a strong team spirit. In both subject matter and community leadership settings, Extension staff and volunteers both learn to understand the importance of groups and the benefits of communicating in a group setting, while continuing to recognize the importance of individual development and motivation.

Methodological problems are acute in the leadership development program area because of the diversity of theories, goals, structures, functions, audiences, definitions, and program content. In this overview, we found many similarities between early Extension programs and current ones. There are many needs for additional research and program evaluations. We need to distinguish or better define our ideas of leadership, management, and teaching. We found changes in paradigms in the sense of using different approaches or perspectives to examine leadership development programs. We did not find any revolutionary shifts, but rather a broadening and deepening of basic program approaches.

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STATISTICAL PROFILES: POWERFUL MULTIPURPOSE TOOLS FOR NARROWING PROGRAM FOCUS AND DEVELOPING SUPPORT AMONG COMMUNITY LEADERS

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University of Wisconsin-Extension

INTRODUCTION

This presentation is not a research report, but an overview of the development and use of an educational tool, a statistical profile. It includes an explanation of how we have used it with advisory committees and other clientele in Wisconsin's Family Living Education programs, and why we believe it has helped us to be more effective in working with community leaders. I will begin by relating the context in which the profile development began.

ASSESSMENT OF LOCAL PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT PROCESS

Our Family Living Education unit (Extension Home Economics in Wisconsin) used a strategic planning process to prepare for the four year plan of work. As many of you are aware strategic planning requires careful assessment of the organization and its environment. As we engaged in an informal process to do this we became convinced that our program area needed more than just a prioritizing of subject matter. We needed to refine and improve our program development process at the local level. This was because the program development process was not designed to put adequate emphasis on response to current, important societal problems and needs. And it did not put enough emphasis on public relations, specifically on marketing and developing program support.

Priority: Improve the Local Advisory Process

Our careful review of standard procedure brought to the forefront a number of ways to make improvements. But the most significant of these was to restructure our approach in getting advice from the community. Several methods

of working with advisory committees were being used by field faculty. Our committee chair later articulated our concerns about their shortcomings as follows:

1. The advisory process in counties often did not make use of current trends information when advising faculty on program direction.

2. Advisory input tended to be more narrow and traditional than desired because advisory committee members were largely made up of lay representatives of traditional clientele groups.

3. Advisory committee members were more likely to represent a particular educational interest versus overall concern for families.

4. Committee members typically were not viewed as influential in the community.

5. Because advice was only gathered annually, and often individuals were only involved on a single occasion, they were not likely to be familiar enough with the overall education program to be supportive of it.

The Need for Support as an Outcome of the Advisory Process

Experience had shown that there are occasions when demon strated public support is essential for maintaining the program. Very recent experience had shown us however, that our support base was not broad enough. During a period when budget cuts were pending and local level support was requested from clientele, the county Extension Homemaker(EH) organization played a key role.

There were three reasons for this. First, we have a long standing relationship with the organization, and have always been mutually supportive. Second, the organizational structure of EH makes it relatively simple to mobilize a lot of volunteers with a given amount of effort. Third, most of our other clientele are only familiar with a portion of the Extension Home Economist's role, and therefore cannot speak to the overall need for an Extension Home Economist at the county level.

The problem arose when some EH supporters unwittingly gave rationale to support our program which was inconsistent with Cooperative Extension's current mission. In some of these cases these arguments of support had to do with how Extension Home Economists (hereafter referred to as EHEs) had been beneficial several years earlier when program priorities were different.

Others were more current references to Home Economist work that was clearly outside priority areas of programming. Both types of testimony were harmful. In short, we found ourselves between a rock and a hard spot. The rock was that Extension Homemaker support was not consistently helpful; the hard spot was that we did not have many other sources of broad based support, particularly among state and community leaders that could explain the benefits of Family Living Education to the population.

As our strategic planning committee discussed this and other issues it became clear that one group of local people who should be able to be supportive of the EHE and be cognizant of her role in the community are those who advise her program. Thus a new design for advisory committees was developed and promoted to EHEs to use in their counties. The new advisory process was different in several ways:

1. Committee membership was to include a significant proportion of persons that were not traditional or other clientele.

2. EHEs were to recruit community leaders and influentials who could speak to the needs of families generally.

3. The committee members would be asked for sustained commitment to last over a four-year period.

4. Committees were not just to give advice, but were to receive education from the EHE relative to trends that haye implications for educational programs, and to help them to understand the role EHE as a family education expert.

5. At the outset, members would be told that their committee assignment would include a support function.

Ellen Fitzsimmons, a program design specialist, conceptualized and then detailed the new plan, working through the many obstacles blocking implementation. The new committees were not called advisory committees, but Planning and Support Committees. With the support of the program leader and the Strategic Planning Committee Ellen conducted inservice around the state, explaining the new model, and encouraging faculty to use it in the upcoming season. This all preceded the start of Extension's 4-year program planning cycle.

"Our Changing Profile", A Tool For Use With Advisory Committees

An important part of the new model was that EHEs would use a statistical profile to help communicate to the Planning and Support Committees the status of today's families in summary fashion, and to communicate some of the major issues and problems facing families. The title chosen for the publication was "Our Changing Family Profile"

What is a statistical profile? Statistics are numbers that symbolize or summarize large amounts of information. A profile is a portrait, side view or silhouette. A statistical profile then, is a portrait or picture drawn with statistics rather than with charcoal or pen. A statistical profile of a city, for example, is a description of a city communicated with statistics such as total population, average summer temperature, crime rate, number of restaurants, average earnings of employees, etc.

Some purposes of using statistical profiles with an advisory committee are obvious. First the data serves to broaden the perspective of the committee. Second, it helps to put them on equal footing with each other by giving them a common set of facts. Third, the data stimulates discussion which helps participants better conceptualize their advising role.

Other purposes we had for use of profiles are less obvious. For example, we wanted to immediately present to these committees a visual message that Extension Home Economics is research based. Also we could not think of a more concise and powerful way to describe breadth of program need.

In times past trends statements had been used to communicate some of the information we packed into our first profile. But for the first time a data trends presentation was to occupy at least 30 minutes of meetings with advisory committees statewide.

The idea of developing a statistical profile, surfaced in 1985. It was suggested to the strategic planning committe which immediately embraced it. An advisory committee refined the concept, and provided reality tests in the development process. The profile itself was to contain about sixty camera ready data visuals, each supplied with complete background information and implications. State specialists submitted the suggestions and drafts of visuals that eventually became the content. Drafts were reviewed by the advisory committee, and by the state staff generally. Drafts of the profile were also used in orientations with Extension Home Economists to obtain feedback, and to give them a sense for the look of the final product.

Taking on the Technical Challenge

The biggest challenge of developing "Our Changing Family Profile" was to produce a product that was representative of the worlds of data we felt were important but developing it quickly enough that it would be current (currency greatly affects the perceived value of demographics). Since much of the data was county level and each county EHE was to get a profile tailored to her county, this effort required the preparation of over six hundred separate graphs, tables, and charts.

The task seemed insurmountable with less than five months to accomplish it. But with the wonder of microcomputer technology and desktop publishing, it was completed on time, accomplished primarily by myself and a very competent secretary. The packet was disseminated in December 1986, and used during the following calendar year. An update was sent out 13 months later, and a full revision was published in February of this year.

Contents of the Profile

"Our Changing Family Profile" contains demographics about today's families, and where they live and work. It has data about family economic well-being, how they use their money, their nutrition and health, and how they care for family members. It provides many comparisons of national, state and county data. Since the first profile, we also produced a Marriage and Divorce packet in 1988, and one called Children and Youth: Trends and Indicators in July of this year.

INDICATIONS OF USE AND IMPACT

In May, 1987, five months after EHEs received orientation to the new advisory process and had received the first Family Profile, 57 of Wisconsin's 65 EHEs were surveyed at a state conference by the strategic planning committee relative to their use of the profile. They filled out short confidential questionnaires. Ninety-six percent had used data from the profile in presentations to their advisory committees. Not all of these had implemented the full Planning and Support Committee model, however. When asked whether they had also used the profile in presentations to their Extension committees seventy-eight percent answered yes.

At this time EHEs were also asked for their ratings of the quality of the materials. Using a four-step scale (poor, fair, good, excellent) 56% rated the

materials "excellent", 44% rated them "good". Additional questions were asked to solicit perceptions of the most important data to include, ways to improve format etc., and these suggestions contributed to our updating decisions.

Ten follow-up telephone interviews with randomly selected EHEs were conducted by the committee as a check on the questionnaire data. The interviews confirmed the written data, but with even more positive response. We had not asked on the questionnaire whether the profile materials were used with other clientele. In fact some of the ten persons interviewed had done so. In short, the EHEs were pleased with the profile, but they wanted more. They also expressed concern that this kind of support continue long term.

Two full years have passed since that time. I have received from EHEs many examples of how they have used the materials. Below is a listing of some of these.

HOW HAS "OUR CHANGING PROFILE" BEEN USED

Clientele

advisory committees	county boards & town councils
legislators	lay leaders
school boards	clergy groups
extension homemakers	family service agency personnel
4-H leaders	community service organizations
Home Ec teachers	general public
family counselors	

Uses

presentations	handouts in meetings
newspaper articles	workshop introductions
mini-profiles	building credibility with partners
source for grants	plans of work
narrative reports	

Among the most significant of these is the trend among EHEs to develop short county profiles using data from "Our Changing Family Profile" and other sources. They use them as mailing enclosures and handouts when they give presentations. Many have used these or other profile-related products in regular mailings to elected officials including members of congress.

In short, Our Changing Family Profile has had many spinoffs that reflect its importance and value. One specialist recently indicated publicly that "Our Changing Family Profile" is the most influential document Family Living Extension has produced in the decade.

Informing Community Leaders

Finally, and perhaps most important of the perceived outcomes of this effort is that because of the use of these products with community leaders many are better informed to speak for the needs of families than before. Community leaders involved in the advisory process, not only become better acquainted with Extension Home Economics programming, they become better versed on the status and needs of today's families. Other leaders are benefitted in less direct ways through educational materials developed to convey smaller amounts of the same set of information.

An evaluation is scheduled for this winter that will attempt to objectively assess the impact of the statistical profiles on Family Living program, on clientele, and upon clientele perceptions of the EHE. Meanwhile other "profile" products are in planning stages.

Summary

This presentation has provided an explanation of the development and perceived value of a type of educational tool, statistical profiles. I have explained how we came to use and value statistical profiles in Extension's Family Living Education program in Wisconsin, and why we believe they have helped us to be more effective in working with community leaders.

THE DISCIPLINES, INSTITUTIONS, AND NEEDS TO BE MET

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If someone asked you to describe a typical day in your life, what would you respond? Here are some highlights from a recent one of mine:

- My radio awakened me at 6:30 a.m. with the tragic news of Chinese students being gunned down in Tiananmen Square in Beijing. My husband and I walked in Tiananmen Square less than a year ago.

- When I arrive at my office, I pick up a copy of our student newspaper. The headline reads that the proprietors of a local gathering place, not a mile from where we are, posted derogatory signs when a group of students gathered to celebrate San Juan Day, a Latin American celebration of the Baptism of Jesus.

- We send a letter to those working on our Human Ecology project in Asuncion, Paraguay. The letter arrives in 1 minute 43 seconds by FAX machine.

- Korean students ask if they can use the College FAX machine to receive personal messages from home.

- Extension Specialists and resident faculty wish to confer about a video tape they expect to produce on the subject of AIDS and human sexuality.

- A nutritional science senior student drops by to say that she has been admitted to medical school.

- The Associate Dean for Academic Affairs advises me another one of our students has not been attending class and is now on probation despite the fact that she entered the university with a good high school grade point average and high ACT score. The diagnosis is that she is having coping problems.

- Faculty members in food science and textile science just learned that they have been awarded Experiment Station funding to research the non-food uses of soybeans, particularly for use in the textile industry.

- A phone call arrives from the office of one of our U.S. Representatives requesting assistance in developing a position paper as a basis for child care legislation.

- At home in time for the six o'clock news, I am assaulted by a comparison of our educational system with that of the Japanese with an implication that we are losing our competitive edge because we are slipping in the training of our workforce.

Does this sound as fractionated as your days? Within this range of events there are some signals about the times in which we live and work. Let me highlight what some of these signals are saying to us.

The tragedy in Tiananmen Square and the treatment of Hispanic students celebrating San Juan Day are reminders that we indeed live in a global society but that we have not yet learned how to tolerate diversity among our fellow human beings. Did I meet some of those students who died in Tiananmen Square? Manhattan, Kansas is not a community that tolerates acts of prejudice, but it happened here. We have work to do.

Printed messages to Paraguay in 1 minute, 43 seconds by FAX machine is yet one more way of communicating instantly, anywhere. Old ways of educating, conducting business, or even delivering extension programs, must be thought of in new ways when this kind of technology is available to us.

Five years ago it would have been unlikely that we would design educational programs for 4-H youth and leaders on the topic of human sexuality and AIDS education. The program is being designed sensitively from a research base to deal with a timely, all-be-it deadly issue. Extension in collaboration with the Land Grant University can do that kind of thing and we must.

The rapid expansion of the knowledge base, the ability to communicate instantly sometimes seems to exceed our ability to synthesize and adjust. We see in our students both the excitement of new and varied opportunities, and the frustration of too much about which to decide. To some, a barrage of new experiences and choices to make is very stimulating, but to others it is threatening and overwhelming. Sometimes our students are torn between values and expectations of their families and friends, for marriage or to come back home, and for career opportunities that they see for themselves when they enter

the university. As educators, we have the responsibility of helping them sort through those choices in a positive way as do you as extension educators and parents. It sometimes seems that science and events have become so complicated and so vast that we may seem in danger of losing our human perspective or our ability to deal with the world on a human scale.

These are issues raised by my typical day, but they belong to each of you as well. It is not an exhaustive list, but it is sufficient to set the stage for our discussion here today.

The title for my remarks listed in your program is "The Disciplines, Institutions, and the Needs to be Met". I have revised the order in which I will address these for this reason. If you haven't identified what is needed, you can't organize the institutions or the subject matter (disciplines) to meet those needs. That may be one of our problems. We may be holding on to some university curricula or extension programs which are no longer responsive to the needs of contemporary society.

THE NEEDS TO BE MET

I have identified three broad areas of need:

1) Education for life, in a complex global society...

Why doesn't education end with a diploma or degree?

Some say that the knowledge base is doubling every six months. We know that the National Science Foundation is about to fund a multi-million dollar project to map the human genome, that is, the genetic code of every cell in the body will be recorded. That will be the blueprint to understanding human development and disease.

Changes in the market recorded on the New York Stock Exchange instantly impact the markets in Tokyo, London, and Bonn. Markets for our beef, wheat, fruit, or rice depend upon the willingness of Europe, Russia, China, or Chile to buy because they can buy anywhere in the world or produce their own commodities with agriculture as sophisticated as ours.

If we are no longer the only competitors in the world market and it takes only 3% of our population to produce a sufficiently abundant food supply, then what is the impact on life in our rural country side? When Japan and Korea,

Germany and Yugoslavia produce the computers, TV's, cars, and clothes we use, then the great industrial centers of our country become high tech industries or, too often, slums.

The constant need to renew ourselves for life in the midst of such change, to rebuild our communities on new economic and perhaps social bases, are great needs to be met. Many of you and your clientele are finding the need for more, different, or continuing education as careers change, or take on new technical dimensions, or you simply have a need to continue to learn to keep pace with the world. Your extension organizations are in key positions to help you and your clientele meet these needs, either directly through programs or to help you find sources of continuing education or college degree programs you need.

2) Empowerment to Influence Circumstances Impacting One's Life,Family, and Community

Like the student who stopped attending class, who lost the ability to cope, it is sometimes easy to feel powerless to control factors impacting your profession, your community and your life. The earth is warming because South American, Asian, and African forests are being depleted and world wide industry is depleting the ozone layer. How can you or I change that? The food available in our local supermarkets is from New Zealand or Brazil or France, in short from everywhere. How do I know that it is safe to serve to my family? How do you impact a political system that packages candidates for 30 second TV spots and moves issues through legislatures propelled by full-time lobbyists?

Overwhelming as these and other circumstances may seem, decisions which affect them are made by people. When one recognizes that fact, Step I toward obtaining control has been made. Changed policies on important social, educational, and environmental issues have been made by dedicated, persistent people. Empowerment begins with a strong sense of dedication to a cause and the acquisition of some skills to "make a difference in people's lives by inspiring and motivating others". This is how extension defines leadership. It is one of the critical issues identified by the Cooperative Extension system. Developing leadership potential is essential to influencing our world. It's value cannot be over-estimated. Many of your clientele are not yet empowered.

3) The Need for Stability in a Global, Rapidly Changing Society
- The Development of Character, Values, Humanness

This is perhaps the greatest need. When events seem over-powering, beyond one's control, individuals must have within themselves the ability to cope,

even to create. The alternative of dropping out or drifting is a human loss and a burden on society. The path taken, whether to cope and create or to drift and drop out, depends on many factors. Believing we can make a difference ourselves as professionals is crucial. The growth and development of children in a caring nurturing environment is a powerful positive factor. You are in a position to educate toward this end.

Many years ago an anthropology professor, spoke to a professional group of which I was a participant. One of her points has remained with me. She talked to us about an annual event shared with her young daughter. It was shelling fresh peas. The act of shelling peas is a simple task which can be performed by the very young. It is seasonal, it can be depended upon with the coming of spring gardens. It is productive. Although slowly it may seem, if you stick to the task you can fill a bowl with a nourishing food to be shared with the family. What the anthropologist was telling us was that the act of shelling peas with her daughter was a far more profound experience than merely providing food for a family meal. There was a reason to sit down with and be close to her daughter in an unhurried, unthreatening environment. While working together on a nontaxing project they could talk of many things. They could get to know each other and care for one another; the kind of experiences that build character and humanness. There are a thousand demands on our time and attention and on each member of our family, but we need to hold fast to the times to shell a few peas together.

President Frank Rhodes of Cornell University expresses it this way: "In all the disciplines, our attitudes, our goals, our work and our careers are profoundly influenced by our views on the overarching questions that are common to all humankind. All of us need some sketch map with which to navigate the wilderness of our conflicting experiences. And we are likely best to find our way if we have some glimpse of the kinds of maps that others have sketched; of the way they have struggled to make moral and intellectual sense out of their world; of the nourishment they have found for the spirit in the face of adversity, ambiguity and mortality; of the way they have distinguished the noble from the base, the true from the false and the best from the good.

This knowledge has always been a goal of the liberal arts and of the land-grant colleges -- for it frees us from the circumstances of time, place and prejudice into which we are born and gives us the freedom and the capacity to address the age-old question of what it means to be human."

Developing the capacity to be human surely begins at home, but it is also very much the responsibility of the university, in its resident and extension programs providing the educational experience.

THE INSTITUTIONS

For the purpose of this paper, the institutions are the Land Grant Universities with their three-fold mission: research, resident instruction, and extension. Research was initially conducted through the Agricultural Experiment Stations located in the Colleges of Agriculture. From the beginnings of the Morrill Act, which is now 100 years old, the kind of research conducted applied basic science to the improvement of agricultural production; later to marketing agricultural products and life in the rural home and community. Resident Instruction was to educate the succeeding generations of researchers and teachers of the agricultural sciences and to train the extension agents. Extension was to take the research findings in agriculture directly to the people by way of county extension offices, agents, meetings, and written publications. Another important function, sometimes overlooked, is that the extension agents were to bring the problems and issues from the populace back to the university where research could be conducted to solve the problems.

The Land Grant University concept, and particularly the Extension Service, now in its 75th year, was an ingenious idea - probably one of the great ones of the 20th century which has now been extended world-wide.

But some in government question if it has outlived its usefulness and scarce federal and state dollars could better be used elsewhere. After all, our agricultural production has exceeded our ability to consume or to market. But they miss the point. The concept of a system which links university based research and programs directly to the populace is probably needed more now than ever, but the issues are different.

The threats to the extension system are more likely aimed at what is perceived as outdated, non-relevant subject matter, than to the system itself. When legislators argue that federal dollars should not support handicraft projects, it is the project not the system that is being criticized. It is essential that we not let the two be confused.

Then how do we make certain that this extraordinary educational system is maintained and used to its greatest advantage?

- We must be sure that Extension projects are limited to subject matter which is not available anywhere else. Seventy-five years ago there were not 30 television channels available to almost everyone 24 hours a day,

there were no tape recorders nor video cassettes. There were not rows and rows of magazines on every subject you could think of (and some you don't want to think about!) in every grocery store, drug store, and airport.

- Extension programs should be limited to those subjects which have a research base, are complex, and are those where nonbiased information is needed to sort out the truth among many conflicting claims. Extension projects should not be "how to's" but "what if's" - not how to make pies or tolle paint, but what if I chose the Pritikin diet over Weight Watchers or some other diet, or what if my husband or I should die without having made a will.

- Extension programs should help citizens expand their knowledge of the world and its people, of global issues. May I suggest this be in the form of going abroad or serving as host families for international students - efforts more sustained and active than viewing travelogues. International or global issues do not stand alone, but are an integral part of economic development, leadership development and community development. What Extension programs do we have for those communities with an influx of Hispanic or Southeast Asian families?

- Extension programs should be designed to take into consideration life styles and life needs of the population. It is my understanding that membership is always a topic of discussion in Extension homemakers clubs. A lot of creative energy is spent in trying to determine how to involve younger homemakers or how to build a declining membership. Does this concern extend to involving other ethnic groups?

Who are homemakers today? Homemakers are husbands and wives and parents. They both work outside the home and inside. They have very little time to go to meetings but they do have VCR's, satellite receivers, and cassette players in their cars in which they spend a lot of time commuting to and from work. The potential extension audience may be larger than ever, but whether or not much of it will participate depends on some very different kinds of information and the way that it is delivered.

The Extension organizations do fulfill another very important function in contemporary society, probably the one that is more difficult to explain to legislators. The Extension meeting and organization provides a way for people who may feel lonely or alienated in the global society I have referred to, to come together to reaffirm their humanity, to organize to affect change.

The Extension system is a valuable means of building much needed leadership skills within our society. If one is to affect one's surroundings and influence one's future then one has to develop some skills to do so. The National Extension Initiatives defines leadership as "ability to make a difference in people's lives by inspiring and motivating others". One of the accomplishments that your organization can be most proud of is that you have helped thousands of young people, men and women learn how to get the facts, formulate issues, and make important changes in your communities, your state governments as well as the federal government. I would urge you to continue this effort. See that clientele learn and practice their leadership skills within their own club and within the security of friends, but put them to practice outside. Get them involved in other community organizations. Urge them to run for office, or at least organize groups to support public issues.

THE DISCIPLINES

For the purpose of this presentation, I shall interpret disciplines to mean what is the appropriate subject matter base to support the Land Grant University, extension, resident instruction and research programs. There is a great deal of discussion on this matter across Land Grant Universities in this country today. We are now viewing the whole university as the source of subject matter for extension and research programs, no longer just the Colleges of Agriculture. Many Land Grant Universities are undergoing substantial reorganization in an effort to provide an even better information base, particularly when fewer dollars are available to do so. This is no news to most of you in Extension!

In the College of Human Ecology at KSU, we use these guiding principles:

1. Is the subject matter part of the professional base? When the home was the center of production, colleges like ours taught basic "how to skills" such as food preparation and nutrition, clothing construction, and family resource management. Now we are educating students who will enter industries and agencies as the professionals who will design those goods and services which are more likely to be purchased outside the home than to be produced inside. But the goods - services must be designed with understanding of human needs and interests.

2. Is the subject matter being taught or researched elsewhere - in our state or region? In other words, is it unique? In a time of rapid and pervasive communication, and increased costs, we cannot afford to

duplicate programs. Instead, we work out cooperative programs with our neighboring states, and present courses by telecommunications, via satellite where possible. Extension exchanges educational materials and programs across state lines and must do so even more.

3. Does it support social or economic bases of our state or region? Land Grant Universities are state and federally supported institutions, therefore, they have a direct responsibility to provide research and graduates which will enhance the social and economic climate of the state. For many years, the Experiment Station in our university has conducted research on wheat and beef, aimed at increasing production of high quality products. Our college, the College of Human Ecology, has conducted research on the nutritional quality and processing of those commodities. Today we are also conducting research on adding value to those commodities through development of new processes for food and non-food products. Our Extension specialists are directly involved.

4. Is the subject matter on the leading edge of knowledge? Universities have the responsibility of conducting basic research, product development, and of great importance, the social implications for the design of new products and processes.

The issues are changing. Last month, I attended a meeting in Washington, D.C. on Agricultural Research in the 1990's. There were no papers on new wheat varieties, or new breeds of livestock, rather the topics were:

Demographics / Consumer Perspectives
Agricultural Policy/Trade/Marketing
Integration into Interdependent World Markets

Diet and Health

Food Systems
"Lite" Trend Impact on Functionality Requirements of Food System Constituents in the 90's

Economic Forces Affecting the U.S.Food System in the 1990's

Investment in Science and Technology

Environment
Pesticide Industry's Role and Responsibility in Protecting the Environment

Technology Impact
Technology in the Transformation of the U.S. Economy: Lessons for the U.S. Food System

Technology Transfer for Economic Development
Technology Transfer: Federal Role
Who Will Reap the Rewards of Biotechnology?

Technology Transfer for Economic Development: Emerging trends

Science Policy and Impact on Agriculture
Managing: Agricultural Research in the Real World

For the past three years, a number of us across the U.S. have been working to increase funding through the Agricultural Experiment Stations for the social science elements of agriculture and rural life - that is the human elements. We were concerned that too little research was being conducted on the impact on families and communities of the great changes in the agricultural enterprise, namely; the decline of the family farm, and the rural community, as well as the human consequences of genetic engineering of meat animals and other matters of biotechnology. I would urge that you work with your research colleagues and ask your legislators to support research on the human consequences of science. The 1989 Federal Agriculture Budget endorsed by NASULGC contained two line items for research funding. "Family Well Being" ($4 million) and "Community Viability" ($6 million).

Extension now develops on an annual basis a national agenda which it places before the Congress for support. In recent years that agenda closely parallels the Experiment Station agenda, in the hope that a well thought out coordinated program focusing on a few critical issues, can gain the financial support that is needed. For example, two of the eight National Extension Initiatives are "Family and Economic Well Being" and "Revitalizing Rural America."

It is of utmost importance that each of you participates in the development of that agenda and that you communicate with your legislators on the need to support it. That is the only way that programs which are of importance to you, your family, and your community can continue to be made available.

SUMMARY

In a rapidly changing, highly complex, global society we must work to maintain a human perspective. Science, communications, business, education are all designed by people; government decisions are made by people; let us do what we can to assure that the decisions are made by intelligent, informed, and compassionate people. You are part of a magnificent educational organization. To keep it strong and functioning, it must continue to renew itself. Use your professional time and resources on those issues and programs which you cannot find elsewhere. To develop clientele leadership skills and use them to influence issues at times may seem overwhelming, but they are overwhelmingly important.

On a trip to South Africa back in 1956, Robert Kennedy said: "The future does not belong to those who are content with today, apathetic toward common problems and their fellow man alike, timid and fearful in the face of new ideas and bold projects. Rather it will belong to those who can blend vision, reason and courage in a personal commitment to the ideals and great enterprises of American society.

Our future may lie beyond our vision, but is not completely beyond your control. It is the shaping impulse of America that neither fate nor nature nor the irresistible tides of history, but the work of our own hands, matched to reason and principle, will determine our destiny. There is pride in that, even arrogance, but there is also experience and truth. In any event, it is the only way that we can live."